

*Private HE in Bangladesh: the impact on
HE governance & legislation*

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CONTENTS

	<i>Page</i>
Acknowledgements.....	i
Abbreviations.....	ii
Abstract.....	v
Glossary of Bengali words used.....	vii
List of Tables.....	viii
List of Figures	ix

Chapter 1 – Introduction

Introduction.....	1
Rationale	1
Background to the study.....	3
Purpose of the study	7
The paper’s structure and Research Questions.....	8

Chapter 2 – Conceptional Framework and Literature Review

Types of Literature reviewed.....	11
<i>Education and National Development</i>	
Education and National Development.....	12
The concept of national development.....	12
The role of education in national development.....	16
The role of higher education in national development.....	17
The responsibilities of private higher education.....	22
<i>Development of Private Education</i>	
Definition of private education.....	25
Types of private education.....	26
Mapping private higher education.....	34
Proposition of expansion of private higher education.....	34
<i>Impact of Private HE</i>	
The impact of Private HE.....	41

Advantages of private HE	43
Disadvantages of private HE.....	49
<i>Governance and Regulation of private HE</i>	
Introduction.....	59
Governance and regulation challenges of private HE.....	60
Conclusion of literature review.....	65

Chapter 3 – Country Context: Bangladesh

Introduction	67
Country profile	67
Education System	69
Higher Education System	73
Higher Education Management.....	73
The Private HE Sector in Bangladesh.....	76
Conclusion of Country Context.....	82

Chapter 4 – Research Methodology and Methods

Introduction	84
Epistemological foundation for research	84
Methodological approach.....	87
Research techniques.....	93
Data collection and data analysis.....	98
Selection of HE Institutes and interview sample.....	108
Ethical issues and confidentiality.....	110
Research limitations.....	113

Chapters 5 to 8 – Findings and Discussions

Chapter 5 – Private HE and the demand for Educational Qualifications in Bangladesh

Introduction.....	115
What has expanded the demand for qualifications in Bangladesh?.....	116
Why is the private HE sector growing?.....	122
What are the motives for establishing Private HE institutes?.....	136
Present situation of Private HE.....	143
Summary of the Discussion	145

Chapter 6 – Current Practice in Private HE

Introduction	146
What educational programmes are offered?.....	146
Why are these programmes offered?.....	151
How are the course and curricula designed?.....	160
What is the quality of the course and curricula?	165
What is the target student population?.....	170
Who are the teachers in the Private HE sector?.....	180
Conclusion	188

Chapter 7 – The advantages and disadvantages of Private HE

Introduction	190
Advantages of Private HE.....	190
Disadvantages of Private HE.....	207
Summary	222

Chapter 8 – Governance and Regulatory Challenges

Introduction	224
Present governance and regulatory system of Private sector.....	225
Who are the decision-makers in Private universities and institutes?.....	246
Future challenges for the private sector’s governance and regulatory control.....	250
Strategy for approaching governance and regulation challenges.....	256
Summary of discussion.....	258

Chapter 9 – Conclusion

Introduction.....	260
The role of Private HE in achieving national development	260
Key findings, observations and suggestions	261
Further research	276
Conclusion.....	277
References	279

Appendices

A	291
B	291
C	296
D	298
E	309
F	312
G	323
H	326
I	335

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Finally I would note that, with regard to my education in Bangladesh, I have experienced both public and private education provision as a secondary level student. I have also worked as a lodging master to sustain my continued education. Writing about private education therefore taps into a fair amount of personal experience.

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Abbreviations

AIUB	: American International University, Bangladesh
AKF	: Aga Khan Foundation
APTECH	: A private institution
BANBEIS	: Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information & Statistics
BAU	: Bangladesh Agriculture University
BBA	: Bachelor of Business Administration
BBSM	: Banga Bandhu Sheikh Mujib
BCS	: Bangladesh Civil Service
BEC	: Bangladesh Education Commission
BIET	: Bangladesh Institute of Engineering & Technology
BISE	: Board of Intermediate & Secondary Education
BNP	: Bangladesh Nationalist Party
BOU	: Bangladesh Open University
BPSC	: Bangladesh Public Service Commission
BRAC	: Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
BSMMU	: Banga Bandhu Sheikh Mujib Medical University
BTEB	: Bangladesh Technical Education Board
BUBT	: Bangladesh University of Business & Technology
BUET	: Bangladesh University of Engineering & Technology
CCER	: Centre for Comparative Education Research
CD	: Compact Disk
COC	: College of Computing
CODECS	: A private institution
CPD	: Centre for Policy Dialogue
CU	: Chittagong University
DFID	: Department for International Development
DU	: Dhaka University
EEE	: Electrical & Electronics Engineering
ERCB	: Education Reform Commission - Bangladesh
GATS	: The General Agreement on Trade in Services

GB	: <i>Governing Body</i>
GCSE	: <i>General Certificate of Secondary Education</i>
GDP	: <i>Gross Domestic Product</i>
GNP	: <i>Gross National Product</i>
GPA	: <i>Grade Point Average</i>
HARIZON	: <i>A private institution</i>
HDI	: <i>Human Development Index</i>
HE	: <i>Higher Education</i>
HLI	: <i>Higher Learning Institute</i>
HSC	: <i>Higher Secondary Certificate</i>
HSE	: <i>Higher Secondary Education</i>
HUTECH	: <i>University of Technology of Hochiminh City</i>
IBA	: <i>Institute of Business Administration</i>
IELTS	: <i>International English Language Testing System</i>
IFC	: <i>International Financial Corporation</i>
IIT	: <i>Indian Institute of Technology</i>
IMF	: <i>International Monetary Fund</i>
IT	: <i>Information Technology</i>
JICA	: <i>Japan International Cooperation Agency</i>
KUET	: <i>Khulna University of Engineering & Technology</i>
LEA	: <i>Local Education Authority</i>
LSBA	: <i>London School of Business Administration</i>
MBA	: <i>Masters of Business Administration</i>
MHFA	: <i>Ministry of Health & Family Affairs</i>
MO	: <i>Missouri</i>
MOE	: <i>Ministry of Education</i>
NARIC	: <i>The National Academic Recognition Information for the United Kingdom</i>
NCHW	: <i>A private institution</i>
ND	: <i>National Development</i>
NEAC	: <i>National Education Advisory Commission</i>
NGO	: <i>Non-Government Organisation</i>
NIIT	: <i>National Information Infrastructure Testbed (A private institution)</i>

NSU	: North South University
NUB	: National University of Bangladesh
PE	: Primary Education
PHEC	: Private Higher Education Commission
PM	: Prime Minister
PTTI	: Primary Teacher Training Institute
RU	: Rajshai University
SE	: Secondary Education
SSC	: Secondary School Certificate
TESCUP	: A private institution
TK	: Taka
TOEFL	: Test of English as a Foreign Language
TTC	: Technical Training Centre
TTI	: Teacher Training Institute
UAC	: University Accreditation Council
UGC	: University Grants Commission
UK	: United Kingdom
UNDP	: United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNIP	: A private institution
USA	: United States of America
USAID	: United States Agency for International Development
USIS	: United States Information Service
USIU	: United States International University
VC	: Vice Chancellor
VET	: Vocational & Technical Education
VTI	: Vocational Training Institute
WB	: World Bank
WTO	: World Trade Organization

Abstract

Although it is claimed that private education is a recent phenomenon in the developing world, criteria of private educations and their schemata have evolved out of historical practices. The introduction of private education in South Asia was implemented by a process known as 'Gru-Shiso'. An individual with a good analytical knowledge was considered as 'Gru' and his or her followers were known as 'Shiso'. Exercising knowledge through Gru-Shiso had always been a fundamental part of education in Bangladesh. With the gradual increase of demand for education in contemporary Bangladesh, there has been an increase in private education provision though most acknowledge that education should be the fundamental concern of public policy.

In Bangladesh, education is considered as the weapon of development and it is important to ensure the equal right of every individual to have access to education. However, with the advantage of a sound financial background, privileged individuals are not only accessing better quality education, but also gain a better quality of life through improved access to better quality fundamental goods and rights. The recent expansion of private higher education has thus not only opened the door for the privileged to access better quality education, but it has helped those within the elite that would not normally get access to higher education the means by which to enter this form of provision. This has had significant impact on the quality of HE and research in Bangladesh.

It is important thus that issues of governance and regulation with the private HE sector be addressed since it affects the whole HE system.

Earlier, private education was provided on a very small scale and was not a major concern of public policy. However, its recent expansion has become a cause for major concern. The public policies currently available, particularly with regard to governance and regulatory control, are aimed at governing public education and private education lacks adequate rules and regulations.

A further problem in Bangladesh is that the ruling elite do not always confirm to the rules and regulations of the state system. As the main consumers of private education this means that private education provision often lacks the governance and control to

make it an effective form of provision. Thus the huge responsibility of public policy is to ensure a regulatory environment that is able to deal with these concerns.

The main contention of the thesis is to argue for the development of a PHEC that will fulfil this kind of function.

Glossary of Bengali words used

<u>Bengali word</u>	<u>Translation into English, or explanation</u>
<i>Baridakhal</i>	: <i>When a person or group of people (criminals) occupy someone else's home by force</i>
<i>Bazzar</i>	: <i>Market</i>
<i>Chada</i>	: <i>Collection of subscriptions by force, also known as 'political tax' i.e. Mujibui tax, Zia tax, Aslam tax.</i>
<i>Chadabasi</i>	: <i>When a person or group of people force someone to provide subscriptions, the activity is known as Chadabasi</i>
<i>Duinumbari</i>	: <i>No genuine way or path</i>
<i>Jamidakhal</i>	: <i>When a person or a group of people (terrorists) occupy other people's land by force, the activity is known as Jamidakhal</i>
<i>Mustan</i>	: <i>Criminals who occupy land, home and property by force or collect illegal subscriptions by force.</i>
<i>Nakal/Nakalbasi</i>	: <i>Plagiarism in various forms</i>
<i>TK</i>	: <i>Taka is the name of the Bangladeshi currency; one pound is equivalent to 125 TK</i>
<i>Tutatine</i>	: <i>A student who earns money, food or accommodation by providing private coaching to the dependents of the privileged is engaged in tutatine</i>

List of Tables

1	: HDI & GDP of five underdeveloped countries	14
2	: HDI & GDP of five developed countries	15
3	: Enrolment at tertiary level	33
4	: Advantages and disadvantages of Private HE	43
5	: Criteria of epistemological foundation for research	86
6	: Research enquiry and source of data	96
7	: Time schedule of field research	99
8	: Labelling of respondents in questionnaires session	112
9	: Labelling of respondents in interview session	112
10	: Enrolment in primary level	116
11	: Education and employment	117
12	: Pre-requisite qualification for further study	119
13	: Enrolment: expansion of school	121
14	: HSC graduates from 1990 to 1999	122
15	: HSC statistics	132
16	: HSC statistics: number of institutes of HE	144
17	: Student enrolment at private HE	170
18	: Categories of target student population in private HE	176
19	: Categories of target student population in private HE	176
20	: Number of academics in private HE	182
21	: Number of academics in public and private universities	187
22	: Statistics of TOEFL examinees	192
23	: Budget utilisation level in the institutes of public and private HE	199
24	: Management indicators of public and private HE institutes	207
25	: Public universities by division	211
26	: Private universities by division	211
27	: Performance of public HE institute graduates	214
28	: Performance of private HE institute graduates	214

List of Figures

1	: Types of private institute	26
2	: GDP growth performance of comparators	68
3	: Educational structure of Bangladesh	72
4	: Management structure of undergraduate and post-graduate level	75
5	: Management structure of undergraduate and diploma level	75
6	: Institutional types of private HE	77
7	: Methods of data collection	98
8	: Phase of data collection	98
9	: Distribution of government revenue budget	130
10	: Distribution of government development budget	131
11 - 13	: Demand for public and private HE	171
14 - 16	: Demand for public and private HE	172
17 - 20	: Target student population by private HE	173
21 - 23	: Academic quality of public and private HE students	174
24 - 26	: Student family classes of private HE	177
27	: Involvement of public academics in private HE institutes	181
28	: Involvement of private academics in public HE institutes	182
29 - 31	: Qualifications of teacher in private HE	185-186
32	: Mobility of private academics	187
33	: Mobility of public academics	188
34	: Administrative structure of private universities	231
35	: Authorities of private universities	233
36	: Management structure of private universities	237
37	: Management structure of private medical/dental colleges	237
38	: Management structure of private diploma institutes in medical science	238
39	: The principal: the agent	257

Chapter 1: Introduction

Introduction

Chapter 1 consists of four parts outlining the structure of my thesis. In the first section, I discuss my position as a researcher. In the second, I discuss the development of my interest in the topic. The third part outlines the aim of the thesis and the fourth sets out the research questions and the structure of the thesis.

Rationale

Two phrases are often used in place of the expression 'Third World'. These are 'developing countries' and 'underdeveloped countries'. The use of such phrases indicates that what the countries in question have in common is their lack of development, although the first carries an optimistic implication that things are moving in the right direction, the second seems more pessimistic (Thomas & Potter, 1992, p118).

The concept of 'Third World' as described by Thomas and Potter (1992) provides a description of how to identify which of the world's countries are classified as Third World. However, this generates a further question: 'Is the world essentially divided into three categories?' In reality, are the three categories: 'first world', 'second world' and 'Third World'?

That said, Fagerlind and Saha (1989) and Thomas & Potter (1992) note that researchers are resolutely engaged in research to establish systems that will promote the development of the Third World. However, progress of the Third World's development is unsatisfactory (Lewin, 1993, Tilak, 2002). Tilak (2002) points out that much of the research aiming for Third World development is based on the experiences of developed (first world) countries and therefore will have a number of research limitations. He also points out that researchers based in underdeveloped countries lack knowledge and competence. Tilak may explain some of the reasons for sluggish development, but he does not address all of the issues. I will therefore examine some

of the main reasons for the slow progress of Third World development in order to identify my position.

- Researchers based in developed countries are affected by a number of constraints when attempting to conduct research into the Third World, such as culture and language. Sometimes it may be that the problems of a specific country are not identified clearly enough. Recommendations of the research may be biased by the researchers' own culture, or by their country's bureaucracy. These may not always be applicable in the context of the developing country due to cultural, political, educational and economical differences (Tilak, 2002).
- People in prime positions for implementing research recommendations may not always work with integrity, or may be politically biased (Rahman, 1993).
- There is a lack of proper participation for implementing research recommendations (Rondinelli, et al. 1990). Proper participation is something that can ensure both accountability and a greater pool of knowledge and transparency. It is worth noting that in developing nations there are often power conflicts, as well as a lack of tolerance and understanding between academics, bureaucrats and politicians.
- Interrelation of different problems. A problem that already exists may adversely affect the implementation of ongoing research recommendations.
- Financial difficulties restrict the Third World from making substantial steps towards development. There are always going to be difficulties in balancing budgets when the priorities are dictated by urgent necessities.

It is important then that researchers have a good understanding not only of the specific problem within their research contexts but are also able to understand many of the circumstances under which policy making takes place. From personal experience of working within HE institutions in Bangladesh for some time, I found that increased private HE is a reality that has had both a positive and negative impact on the country's education, particularly higher education.

Two ex-presidents of Bangladesh, Mr Ahmed and Dr Chowdhury, have commented: "There is a dearth of academic research into private higher education in Bangladesh because researchers are usually working with educational enterprises which are

controlled by the government, thus the government's control in higher education in the developing world sometimes reduces the freedom of academics." Indeed, there has not been a single study on private HE to date in Bangladesh.

Though daunting, this thesis explores the rapid expansion of private HE in Bangladesh with a special focus on the governance and regulations challenges. My main contention is that private HE can play an important role in national development in Bangladesh.

Background to the study

Education is generally viewed as critical for the sustained economic growth of nations. It is considered essential for helping to reduce poverty by increasing productivity of the poor. Education provides people with the skills they need to participate fully in society and, by so doing, assist the national economy (Fagerlind and Saha, 1985). Fagerlind and Saha also state that education can address the constraints placed upon the national cultural, political and social freedom that would help to achieve national development (ND). The purpose of education is not only for the acquisition of knowledge, but also for learning how to become a responsible citizen in the fields of culture and politics. Hallak (1990), Halsey (1997), Lewin (1999), UNESCO (1999) and World Bank (2003) also state that education is the "human right" of every citizen. Therefore, all have an equal right to pursue education.

However, much of the research indicates that private education is for those who can afford it (Rose, 2002, Altbach, 1999, Amaral and Teixeira, 2000, Banya, 2001, LaRocque, 2000, Lassibille, World Bank, 2002). This raises the question that, if the purpose of private education provision is purely to provide for the elite, how it can play a vital role in national development? One answer is that private education reduces the overall burden of education on the government, allowing the government to concentrate on providing education for poorer candidates (Huong and Fry, 2002, 2001, Tilak, 1999, Coleman, et.,, 1982, Levy, 1982, Levin, 2000). This may well be true, but there are risks involved in bringing denominational cultural practice to education that may have negative repercussions (Teixeira and Amaral, 2000).

It is claimed that private education is a recent phenomenon in the developing world. However, in-depth analysis shows that different styles of private education have existed in the developing world from an early stage. Criteria of private education and

their schemata have evolved out of historical social practices (Altbach, 1999, Levin, 1987). Interpretation of social events is guided and constrained by the prevailing rationality which itself reflects the dominant constellation of power.

Below, I explore three types of private education. It must be borne in mind that the types identified are based mainly on how old the institutions are and in which period they were established but there are some regional and cultural considerations.

Private Tutor/Lodging-master

Altbach (1999) and A-Samarrai (2001) claim that this style of privatisation is the first stage in the history of private education. They assert that before the introduction of a formal school system in many British colonies and similar regions, privileged parents (for example, a landlord, the district commissioner, the district clerk) would employ private tutors (known as a lodging-master in some countries) to educate their children.

Research by Tooley (1999) hints that this type of privatisation has remained in many developing countries even after the introduction of a formal schooling system. However, the prime purpose of this kind of private education is to help the economically elite primary and secondary students to make better progress with their school performance. This will help them complete further education where access is limited.

Private coaching

Private coaching emerges as a result of poor management in the public sector. In many developing countries, the early history of education is of a government-controlled school system at all levels (World Bank, 2002). Research by Caplanova (2003) in Slovak, Mabizela (2002), Mabizela, et., (2002) in South Africa and by Altbach (1989) in Asia reveal that “bureaucratic management and lack of monitoring” were degrading the overall school atmosphere and the quality of teaching was deteriorating sharply. One factor is that poorly-qualified teachers are appointed through political prejudice (Alam, 2003). Taking advantage of the opportunities presented, the more competent teachers in public schools or institutions offer private coaching to their students at a fee. Qualified and promising graduates who were

‘victimised’¹ offer private coaching to elite students who can afford their fees. Members of some religious groups also see the government education as harbouring a political and internationally pressurised agenda that do not fulfil their needs, therefore such individuals may also offer private coaching in religious studies (Altbach, 1999).

This style of privatisation is prevalent at secondary level. The main market for this type of private education is higher secondary graduates facing admission tests to access higher education, or interviews for a career in the army, police or air force. Recently, this level of private education has become available to candidates who have sought a position within the public service.

Private schooling

Large scale private coaching offered systematically is private schooling, commonly known as private education at present. The ‘rising student enrolment rate’ or growing demand for education results in the establishment of private education (Altbach, 1999, LaRocque, 2000, Banya, 2000, James, 1993). Ignoring the demands of differentiation and the job market pattern by government schools has resulted in private education (see: Banya, 2001, Huong & Fry, 2002, and Amaral & Teixeira, 2000). This style of education treated as private education is unquestionably a recent phenomenon in the developing world. This style of privatisation exists at all levels (primary, secondary and HE) of education.

The three styles of private education referred to depend on tuition fees. Exceptions are to be found, particularly amongst religious groups, where schools may receive donations. However, private education’s main financial source is the fees collected, which leads to two main streams. One positive aspect is that a school always needs competition to survive. A negative aspect is that private education exists to serve the elite, which is not necessarily in the best interest of national development.

In Bangladesh, all styles of private education exist, but this paper will explore private schooling at tertiary level (referred to private HE). Private HE in Bangladesh is a relatively new phenomenon and a fast growing sector. The first private university in Bangladesh was established in 1992. The next 12 years saw the number of private

¹ Not offered a job in a government school or institution as they lack the ‘right’ connections with political leaders or high officials.

universities in the country rise to 54 recognised by the University Grants Commission (UGC) and the Ministry of Education (MOE). A substantial number of unrecognised foreign universities and institutions also operate on a franchise basis. The Bangladesh National University (NUB) was established as the federal university in 1992. The main function of the NUB is to provide affiliation to HE colleges or institutions (government, semi-government and private) and to control them. Under guidance of the NUB, an extensive number of private higher learning institutions are now established.

The growth ratio and circumstance of the private HE sector's growth in Bangladesh is "unique and challenging" (Chowdhury, 2002, speaking at the North South University graduation ceremony). I will try to briefly analyse why such a description is justified.

Between 1991 and 1996, the Bangladesh Nationalist Party (BNP) government, renowned as a favourable administrator for private provision, approved fourteen private universities with two more approved by a caretaker² government. However, their successor, Bangladesh Aowami League, approved only four universities during the years 1996 to 2001, with one approved by a caretaker government. However, the Bangladesh Aowami League government approved a significant number of higher learning institutions (HLI) working in collaboration with the NUB. In October 2001, BNP came to power again. Sixteen new universities were approved between 2001 and 2002. Seven of these were processed by the people involved in BNP during the time of Bangladesh Aowami League. From January 2003 to January 2004, the BNP government approved seventeen more universities. A general election is due to be held in 2006. This may prove a threat to private HE in the country, as political change in Bangladesh always has an impact on HE (see: Alam, 2003).

The above highlights a few important points. Firstly, that there is a very strong relationship between politics and policy changes and the growth of private universities in Bangladesh (see Alam, 2003, Amaral and Teixeira, 2000). Secondly, that there is no well-established and strong governance and regulation structure for the private HE

² An ad-hoc government for a transition period, mainly to conduct a general election within three months if unavoidable circumstances result in an extension. In addition, the government undertakes the day-to-day administrative activities, so they can also approve the registration of private universities.

sector. Thirdly, it generates the question of whether political parties and entrepreneurs of the private higher sector follow rules and, if so, are the rules so weak that they make it easy for politicians to take advantage of them. Additional issues centre on the quality of education provided and the subjects offered by the private HE sector, and the benefit of the initiators of the sector. This research thus seeks to examine student group that are targeted by the private sector.

There is also the question of economic prudence. Bangladesh is a poor country with no international students³. Is it therefore fitting that it should have so many private universities and institutions, as well as more than twenty four government universities, and many government HLIs? In Bangladesh, the number of graduates from primary and secondary establishments is low compared to other developing countries in Asia. It is important to consider the number of students that need to procure higher education in Bangladesh without having secured a universal primary education, and also to consider just how many secondary graduates are competent enough to procure higher education in Bangladesh.

Purpose of the study

The above brief comments shed some light on the poor, degraded educational atmosphere in Bangladeshi private HE. Since its appearance, the Educational Reform Commission of Bangladesh (Alam, 2003) has suggested ceasing affiliation to new schools to address the problem of the declining educational atmosphere in Bangladesh. They suggest legislation through a new Private University Act (with many amendments) to address the situation.

However, the question is, what is the point of new legislation if the politicians and initiators do not obey the rules, or are not of the highest integrity? Moreover, if a country cannot prevent such situations arising in the early stages of its development, what hope can there be that it can prevent or cure such a situation which has become extreme, given that the country in question has been identified as Number One on the list of politically corrupt countries (Transparency Report, 2001, 2002). Furthermore, the World Bank (2002) also states that Bangladesh lacks social freedom.

³ If Bangladeshi HE could attract international students, it would bring economical benefits.

Fisher, (1998) believes that a critical review of literature on this field from an international perspective, will provide lessons for politicians, initiators and those involved in HE (whether private or public) which will not only help them prepare realistic policies, but will also encourage them to ratify and implement such policies with conviction.

It should be noted that the circumstances motivated me to investigate these issues with a special focus on governance and regulatory challenges. I believe that by conducting this doctoral research with sincerity and integrity, I will uncover some interesting facts that will lead to some epoch-making suggestions. The proper implementation of these will see private HE playing a constructive role in national development.

Therefore, the main aim of the thesis is to discuss how the private HE sector can play a constructive role in the development of Bangladesh. The thesis aims to identify and provide the following:

- A concept of national development and the role of education in national development, with particular focus on HE in Bangladesh
- Guidelines for students to assist understanding of their role in shaping educational goals.
- Suggestions for lecturers, parents, the social elite and political leaders to create an appropriate educational atmosphere in the private institutions of HE
- Guidelines for the governance and regulatory approach of the private HE sector

The paper's structure & Research questions

This thesis is divided into 4 sections. The first section includes an introduction and literature review (Chapters 1 + 2). The second section includes the country context and methodologies (Chapters 3+4). The third section deals with the findings (chapters 5-8). The final section consists of the conclusion and recommendations.

The central issue of the research is the impact caused by the rapid expansion of the private HE sector to education in Bangladesh, focusing specifically on the challenge for educational governance and regulation. However, in pursuit of the outcomes stated

earlier, three main areas of investigation, along with a number of research questions, in each area are explored. They are: **(1) proposition of the development of private HE sector; (2) impact of private HE; (3) governance and regulatory challenges of the private HE sector.** These questions are analysed via specific sets of research questions and can be found in chapters 5 to 8.

Within the findings chapters, chapter- 5 examines **why the private HE sector is growing rapidly.** This will be established in response to the following research questions.

- What has expanded the demand for qualifications in Bangladesh?
- Why is the private HE sector growing?
- What are the motives of entrepreneurs for establishing the private HE sector?
- What is the current situation of the private HE sector?

The second area of investigation focuses on the impact of the rapid development of private HE sector. Chapter 6 will look at **current practices in private HE sector** while Chapter 7 will express **the advantages and disadvantages of existing practices.**

In exploring current practice in private HE, chapter 6 focuses on the followings questions.

- What kinds of educational programmes are offered?
- Why are these particular programmes offered?
- How are the course and curricula designed?
- What is the quality of the course and curricula?
- What is the target student population?
- Who are the teachers?

Chapter 8 will examine **the governance and regulatory challenges of the private HE sector.** The following research questions have been set up to provide answers:

- How is the present governance and regulatory system of private HE section in Bangladesh set up?
- Who is involved in decision-making in the institutions of private HE?
- What will be the future challenges be for the governance and regulatory control of private HE?

- What will be the strategy to face the governance and regulation challenges for the government and private HE sector?

Chapter 2: Conceptional Framework and Literature Review

Types of literature reviewed

Studying the research questions reveals that this research investigates three areas of private HE: (1) **the expansion phenomenon**; (2) **development of private HE and its impact**; and (3) **governance and regulatory control of private HE**.

Discussion in Chapters 5 to 8 will answer research questions within the specific context of Bangladesh. However, to provide a clear and coherent understanding of the issues involved, this Chapter (2) will review the relevant literature from an international perspective. This literature review will include the three main areas, listed above, within which my research is concentrated.

Before focusing on the above-mentioned issues, I will discuss the concept of national development and the role of education within national development, as education is considered the main instrument.

In the literature review, the concept of national development (ND) and the role of education in ND will be discussed first, with special focus on HE. The second part defines private HE, providing an explanation for the expansion of the private HE sector. In the third part, the impact of the development of the private HE sector will be discussed along with investigation into the advantages and disadvantages of private HE. The fourth part which is the concluding part of this chapter emphasises the governance and regulatory challenges of private HE before drawing concluding remarks.

Each section includes a combination of both older and more recent literature from relevant fields focusing on the developing world. It was found that there are many more texts based on Africa, due to the availability of the literature.

Education & National Development

Education and national development

In this section, I clarify two key concepts: education and national development (ND). The concept of ND, and justification for the use of both economic and social development indicators, are explained for the purpose of the thesis.

National development

Before focusing on ND, let me put forward a broader concept. Fagerlind and Saha (1989) argue that there is a value-free meaning contained in the notion of development over and above the ideological and political uses of the concept. This value-free meaning is referred to by Fletcher (1974), and Thomas and Potter (1992) as:

“Development can mean the actualisation of an implicit potentiality, the simplest example being the patterned growth maturation of a seed or an initial germ-cell, to the full adult from the individual plant, or animal or human person. Without stipulating, at this point, anything too weighty or too precise, this can also certainly seem to apply to man and his social situations” (Fletcher, 1974, P 43).

“All definitions of development contain the central notion of a process of change from a less desirable to a more desirable kind of society... development of what? How is what is desirable defined, and by whom? How is progression to be achieved?” (Thomas & Potter, 1992 P18).

Thomas and Potter’s summary of the main concept of development is clear, but also raises questions. For example, since the 1950s there have been at least three main schools of thought on the definitions and approaches towards development. The first school is that of the economists. Economists (e.g. Bernstein, Shultz, Psacharapolous) view development primarily in terms of a nation’s relative prosperity. A nation’s development is assessed by measuring any increase in its gross national product (GNP) (Thomas & Potter, 1992). Development is achieved through investing in human capital and “raising the productivity capacities of societies” (Thomas & Potter, 1992).

The second school of thought is that of the sociologists (e.g. McClelland, Weber, Inkeles, Smith). They propose that modernising a country leads to economic development and a modern society. With modernisation as the main goal, the emphasis is placed on education, technology and industrialisation as the agents of transformation. Underdeveloped countries can, they say, be transformed into modern countries with similar economies, societies and politics as those in the prosperous west (Thomas & Potter, 1992; Little, 1999).

In the 1960s and 1970s, another group of theorists (e.g. Seers, Sen, Edwards) began to consider development from a human needs perspective. The emphasis here was not so heavily focused on economic growth as the primary indicator of development, but more on assessing the needs of individuals: their freedom, equity, participation and empowerment to fulfil their potential capabilities (Thomas & Potter, 1992). Sen, for example, argues that:

"If, instead, the focus is ultimately on the expansion of human freedom to live the kind of lives that people have reason to value, then the role of economic growth in expanding these opportunities has to be integrated into that more foundational understanding of the process of development as expansion of human capability to lead more worthwhile and more free lives." (Sen, 1999, p 295).

Before the 1990s, the economists carried the strongest voice. The argument for investing in human capital through investment in education was considered to lead to higher rates of return (both private and social) that would far outweigh the initial investment. Education policies in both developing and underdeveloped countries reacted to this by implementing programmes which led to massive expansion in education provision. In some countries, this approach seems to have worked (e.g. in East Asia) (World Bank, 1995) resulting in industrialisation and, to some degree, modernisation. But in others, such as Bangladesh, the results in terms of economic indicators have been disappointing (World Bank, 2002).

However, by the 1990s, a more holistic view of development was beginning to take centre stage, especially in organisations such as UNESCO and UNDP. From this perspective, human development is not just measured in terms of the economy but

also in terms of freedom, equity (access to education, health), participation and quality of life. UNDP (2002, p2) defines this wider meaning thus:

“Human development is about much more than the raising of national incomes. It is about creating an environment in which people can develop their full potential and lead productive, creative lives in accordance with their needs and interests. People are the real wealth of nations. Development is thus about expanding the choices people have to lead lives that they value. And it is thus about more than economic growth, which is only a means – if a very important one – of enlarging people’s choices.”

I support the view that national development must be a country’s development in terms of its economic and social freedom. I also consider that economic freedom and social freedom are interrelated. One cannot succeed without the other (Thomas, 1981). To increase national economic development, a country must have social freedom and, to achieve social development, a country must have economic freedom. Figures are provided to establish this concept.

Table 1: Five underdeveloped countries (Identified by UNDP)

Country	HDI rank	GDP per capita (PPP\$)	Adult literacy rate	Education index	Life expectancy index	Corrupt country placing (Transparency International)
Bangladesh	145	1,602	41.3	0.40	0.57	01
Nigeria	148	896	63.9	0.58	0.44	02
Angola	161	2,187	42.0	0.36	0.34	03
Madagascar	147	840	66.5	0.59	0.46	03
Kenya	134	1,022	82.4	0.72	0.43	04

Source UNDP: Human Development Report 2002 and Transparency International:

Corruption Perceptions Index 2002

<http://hdr.undp.org/reports/global/2002/en/indicator/indicator.cfm?File=index.html> &

http://www.transparency.org/pressreleases_archive/2002/2002.08.28.cpi.en.html

Table 2: Five developed countries (Identified by UNDP)

Country	HDI rank	GDP per capita (PPP\$)	Adult literacy rate	Education index	Life expectancy index	Transparent country placing (<i>Transparency International</i>)
Finland	10	24,996	.. 1	0.99	77.6	01
Denmark	14	27,627	.. 1	0.98	0.85	02
Iceland	7	29,581	.. 1	0.96	0.90	03
Sweden	2	24,277	.. 1	0.99	0.91	04
Canada	3	27,840	.. 1	0.98	0.90	05

Source UNDP: Human Development Report 2002 and Transparency International:

Corruption Perceptions Index 2002

<http://hdr.undp.org/reports/global/2002/en/indicator/indicator.cfm?File=index.html> &

http://www.transparency.org/pressreleases_archive/2002/2002.08.28.cpi.en.html

It is important to note that this comparison does not consider the quality of education provided in the countries included. Furthermore, GDP has been calculated to include foreign aid received by underdeveloped countries from developed countries. In some countries, a lower income (GNP) produces a better quality of life, due to the correct balance between income and the purchasing power controlling the value of basic goods. The placing of corruption and transparency column in the Tables 1 and 2 is a key indicator, as transparency is an aspect of social development that can help achieve not only economic development, but also human development. Conversely, corruption is an aspect of social decadence that will hinder any level of ND (Clinton, 2003).

The tables show that the underdeveloped countries have a low GDP as well as a low HDI, while the developed countries not only have a higher GDP but also higher HDI. Therefore, economic freedom and social freedom are interrelated (see examples in *Appendix A*). Nevertheless, Lewin (1993), Fagerlind & Saha (1989) and Knight & Sabot (1990) believe that education can play a vital role in ND. The role of education in ND will now be examined briefly.

It will help to discuss the role of education in ND in general before moving on to discuss the role of HE in ND.

The three theoretical perspectives outlined in the previous section consider education to be a key agent of ND, either as a way of developing human capacity, increasing the skilled workforce for modernisation, or as a matter of personal freedom, developing capability and empowerment. From the 1940s onwards, and as described in the previous section, education provision was either considered in terms of producing the requisite 'manpower', which the country needed as an investment and which would yield both social and private rates of return, or as a response to social demand (Thomson, 1981). However, due to the popularity of more humanistic theories of development in the 1990s, there was a general realisation that education was not only the key to economic development and human capacity/productivity building, but was also a basic human right and a necessity (World Conference on Education for All, 1990).

Above all, education is a human right and, as such, should receive priority in the allocation of national resources. It is very short-sighted to keep education bound and gagged to the role of manufacturing skilled manpower, or to judge one's success by the number of either children or adults who have efficiently undertaken a 'learning package' (Hallak, 1990, P 45).

Education was previously seen as fundamental, not only to the economic development, but also to the social and political development within nations and for individuals. Hallak (1990) argues that education is also linked to human resources development and that this has an impact on more than just economic growth, but also an impact on the wider development of individuals and societies. Education, he argues, contributes to:

- ✓ individual creativity, improved participation in the economic, social and cultural roles in society
- ✓ improved understanding of an individual and their respect for others, thus promoting social cohesion and material understanding
- ✓ improvement in health and nutrition
- ✓ improved chances of economic development
- ✓ improved technological development
- ✓ socio-cultural change

- ✓ democracy and equality
- ✓ ecological development/quality of life (increasing people's awareness of their environments)

Examining the list, it is clear that for Hallak, modernisation and economic development, although desirable, are not the only aspects of human development that are and should be enhanced by education provision. Participation in social, political and cultural activities and improvements in health as education goals are equally important. Woodhall (1997) notes that investment in education and training produces benefits for the individual and for society as a whole. Moreover, Tilak (1999) observes that education not only benefits those who gain it through increased income, but also helps overall social development. The return on investment for society will be a skilled workforce that will enable global competitiveness and economic growth, while the return for the individual will be an improved career path, increased earning power and a better quality of life. According to Fagerlind and Saha (1989), the concept of 'human capital' suggests that education and training raises the productivity of workers and increases their earnings over their lifetime. But this is not always true for the high percentage of learners and trainees who have gained their education leaving certificates. It is the people with a high level of education, observe Fagerlind and Saha (1989), who are most likely to benefit from human capital investment.

The role of HE in national development

Early in the century, Newman (1909) argued that the purpose of a university is to train elite scholars in order to render them competent enough to work for the public service that ran the country. Nowadays, universities do far more than what Newman initially envisaged. Universities recognise that every profession demands competent professionals and that, consequently, countries need a balanced development across all educational sectors in order for ND to progress. As a result, the universities now provide a wide range of training and education in the arts, science, social science and commerce, which may have caused the recent IT and e-commerce revolution. Well-developed communication systems in the ether and across landscapes remind us that universities are centres for the sharing and exchange of knowledge, and excellence in scholarships.

Higher education has traditionally been considered as for both the 'public' and 'private' good. It delivers a unique product – that of knowledge – and the credentials

to apply that knowledge in a modern society. It provides the necessary skills for individuals to raise their income levels and to follow prestigious careers. At the same time, HE improves the condition of the human resources that are needed for societal growth and the operation of a modern economy. There has been considerable debate recently about the primary contribution of HE. The central question is whether the benefit is first and foremost private, and thus the individual or their family should pay, or whether it is for the public good.

Data from virtually every society shows that post-secondary education ensures a higher income and greater opportunities for graduates. Comparison between those who have attended college or university and those who have not shows consistent benefit to the degree holder. Even those who attended college or university but without earning a degree are better placed. There are variations between countries, but the pattern holds globally.

According to Smith, et al., (2002) the purpose of HE is to provide appropriate, diverse and well-timed training, course content and skills to secondary graduates to enable them to be competent in their future employment. As a result, most nations necessarily value HE (Habermas, 1971, Minter & Thompson, 1968). The role of HE in ND is comprehensive (Chapman, 1986, Barnes, *et al.*, 1998), and my focus will be on that role.

However, the system of HE often allows only the 'prodigious' student access to the system (Kivinen & Ahola, 1999, Smith and Bocock, 1999). First, though, the student must overcome many barriers in order to proceed to HE and, in underdeveloped countries, this is more difficult due to the constraints of poverty and tradition (e.g. early marriage, the need to earn income at an early age, lack of funds) (Chapman, 1986). With the combination of 'prodigious' and patient students, proper HE can bring well-timed ND (Chapman, *ibid.*). As is widely acknowledged, educational endeavours, being multi-disciplinary in nature, depend to a large extent on enterprise from specialists in related disciplines within the country, as well as from developed countries (Watts, 1985, Smith, et. al., 2002). The central purpose of HE is to offer an extensive range of courses appropriate to students' needs in terms of time, content, duration and location to prepare students to be competent enough for the world of work (Teichler, 1999). Consequently, HE offers multi-disciplinary education and

training for students in order to help them to acquire a wide range of professional knowledge and skills (Bennell, 1996).

These circumstances result in preparing a balance of competent professionals for every profession (Ping and Crowley, 1997, Teichler, 1999). In addition, HE provides the opportunity to study and understand global situations; the knowledge acquired can help the students develop their own nation and respond to global challenges (Minter & Thompson, 1968, Ping and Crowley, 1997, Smith, 2001). Higher education and research are interrelated; one cannot survive without the other (Patton, 2002). Research not only develops existing systems but creates new ones, as Frascati (1993⁴) argues:

“Research and experimental development (R&D) comprise creative work undertaken on a systematic basis in order to increase the stock of knowledge, including knowledge of man, culture and society and the use of this stock of knowledge to devise new applications.”

Therefore, HE and research in the fields of science, social science and the arts can jointly play a vital role in ND. However, universities contribute significantly to society in ways beyond teaching and the offering of degrees. Through their libraries, they are major repositories of knowledge. Universities are centres of research and development and, in most countries; they are the source of basic research. They often serve as important cultural centres by supporting publishing enterprises, dance companies or orchestras, and serve as venues for cultural performances and institutions. In many societies, universities are among the few places where independent and critical thought takes place (see: Alam, 2003, Altbach, 1974). These are all core responsibilities of universities: difficult to quantify and which generally produce no income.

The role of HE as outlined above helps in achieving ND in terms of both economic and social freedom. HE can play a role in promoting social freedom by addressing the existing superstitions and traditions of a nation, and engendering understanding of and respect for a modern and scientific culture. This should lead to the elimination of inequalities in gender, ethnicity, and empowerment. HE also plays a role in building a

⁴ Internet version – no page number

transparent, enlightened and democratic society (Ping and Crowley, 1997). In addition, Smith and Bocock (1999) note that HE can provide excellent opportunities for students to learn a fuller participatory approach for the collective development of a nation.

However, simply having a higher number of privileged and educated people has not yet helped some countries achieve the levels of economic and social development desired (Kivinen & Ahola, 1999, Bargh, *et al.*, 2000). In addition, Webster (cited in Randall 1993:51) claims that qualifications make people eligible for the jobs, but tell us nothing about their potential productivity or on-the-job proficiency. Webster argues that education becomes the activity of obtaining a qualification in order to get a job rather than learning to do a job. Webster's point generates an area of concern: when candidates are aware that education only provides a certificate, without the requisite teaching and training as to how to implement it in their employment, candidates become alienated from their studies and direct their energy and enthusiasm elsewhere.

In countries where part time jobs are available, students will readily engage in part-time work, but where there are no such jobs available for the students, as is the case in Bangladesh, have a higher potential for derailment. What or who is accountable for creating this situation of drop-out from HE? Is it the HE itself, or the HE system and management, or both? There is no consensus of opinion on this as yet (Kivinen & Ahola, 1999). My position is that, if a country can provide better primary education (PE) and secondary education (SE), ensuring a strong foundation of education, HE can play an important role in ND if accompanied by a good HE system and management. So, in looking for the reason behind the perceived failure of HE to achieve the development desired, I place the fault at the feet of the HE system and its management rather than HE itself. In a country where the poor are unable to pursue HE, how can HE justify an enrolment policy that excludes the impoverished but capable student (Minter & Thompson, 1968)? Furthermore, poor children attend PE/SE 'free schools' which provide a low quality education (BRAC, 2002). As a result they are unable to develop sufficient competence to enrol into HE. In addition, if HE management cannot provide enough competent teachers and modern facilities, such as adequate libraries, it cannot fulfil its critical role. Besides, if a particular country's situation forces it to close its HE institutions for an indefinite period of time,

or for most of the academic year, HE cannot be blamed for failing to achieve desired development levels (Abdallah, 1985, Altbach, 1968, Alam, 2003). In summary, if the student ratio for HE were equitably selected so that all capable students could gain admission to HE, and if they were then provided with a high quality HE in a suitable educational atmosphere, HE would obviously play a constructive role in ND. That said, even if HE is unable to play its desired role in ND due to the limitations of HE, or by the barriers caused by the HE system and management, or due to a country's particular problems, people will still blame HE (Teichler, 1999 and Ping & Crowley, 1997). It is also interesting to note that sometimes, differences may be noticed between purpose and the role played. If the purpose of HE is to assist in ND, 'bad governance and poor management' will inevitably restrict its performance achieving that purpose.

Universities and higher educational institutions are the apex of a country's entire education; consequently, they exert a strong influence on the country's education system and its management (Ping & Crowley, 1997, Altbach, 1974). Therefore, HE is able to act as a central agent for a country's educational improvement, reform and revolution. It is widely understood that education is for accruing knowledge, which can be viewed as a key agent for ND (Lewin, 1993). In order for HE to perform this role, the creation of an appropriate educational atmosphere must be addressed by good governance and management. In many countries similar to Bangladesh, students enter HE by surmounting many barriers.

Under such circumstances, will parents be willing to send their children for HE? It is likely that they will perceive that investment in education is not worthwhile and will not send their children either to HE, nor to PE/SE: they may feel that their children will gain nothing promising for their futures from their schooling. The children themselves have no motivation to proceed to HE. Even though attendance for primary and secondary schooling is compulsory, there is no effective enforcement of this law, which results in reduced enrolment. Although this decline may have no impact on the employment market initially (since there are fewer job opportunities in underdeveloped countries), it will have an impact on social development, predominantly in terms of health and in other areas affected by low rates of general literacy, and will hinder future economic growth.

The responsibilities of private HE

Private higher education has a responsibility to provide information to the public concerning programme quality, the usefulness of a degree, and other details of their particular offering. All too often, it is a case of *caveat emptor* – let the buyer (student) beware. Systems, where they exist, provide some control over the quality of educational programmes. Part of the problem is generic to all of HE. The education market is particularly complex as measurement of the ‘educational product’ is a difficult task and there are few traditions of quality assurance (Altbach, 1999, Zumeta, 1992, Psacharopoulos and Patrinos, 2002). Accountability measures, at least those concerning budget, and the direct delivery of education programmes are fairly well developed in the public universities, but the same is not true of private HE. More transparency is therefore needed (Altbach, 1999, World Bank, 2000, Levin, 2000). The question thus arises as to how private institutions relate to those core functions of higher education. This is emphasised by Altbach (1999, p 141)

“The majority of private universities and post secondary institutions worldwide provide training and bestow credentials in their area of expertise, but little else.”

With the exception of universities operated by religious groups, there is little sense of social responsibility on the part of academic institutions. Few private schools are able to serve as research centres or support major libraries (Altbach, 1999, Rose, 2002). In addition, Altbach and Rose’s statement is not correct in all circumstances, especially concerning developed countries. In the USA and Japan, there are some leading private universities which play dominant roles in American and Japanese HE and research (Zumeta, 1992, James, 1989). Lockheed and Jimenez (1994), Levin, Lockheed and Jimenez (1991) also find that in some developing countries, private schools perform better than their public counterparts. For instance, the studies by Lockheed and Jimenez at secondary level in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, the Philippines, Tanzania and Thailand found that private schools were more cost effective and had higher rate of return than public ones. It is interesting to note that in private schools, parents play an important role by participating in school management and governance. In addition, parents were more watchful over their children’s prospects, and this played an important role in shaping their children’s education.

World Bank (2000, 2001) and Altbach (1999) note that there are some exceptional private universities. For example, the Aga Khan University in Pakistan and the Al-Ahazar University in Egypt (the oldest university in the world, its establishment initiated privately and presently controlled by the government) and, if they were to act as role models to the entire sector, the private sector image would quickly improve in developing nations.

Private institutions provide access to those who can afford to pay for the instruction (see: Rose, 2002). Few private universities can afford scholarship programmes for students from poor economic backgrounds, or are able to provide academic support programmes for ill-prepared students. As a result, private universities contribute little to social mobility or to providing educational opportunities for bright but underprivileged students. Letting market forces determine who gets to study at private universities ensures that only those who can afford the tuition fees will be able to attend.

The professoriate is a central part of any university, and the relationship between private institutions and the academic profession must be considered. Academic freedom and the autonomy of the professoriate are central to the idea of a modern university. However, this is sometimes seen to be in conflict with the market orientation of private HE. The professoriate traditionally has a central role in designing the curriculum and there is a commitment to freedom to pursue knowledge in the classroom. The traditional values of academia are absorbed with time. Much of the private sector is new, and so it is especially important that these values be instilled into the norms of the institutions and their faculties at the outset.

In conclusion to the above sections, the discussion highlights the fact that education unquestionably plays a vital role in national development in terms of economic and social freedom (Tilak, 2002, 1999), and that HE is a central performer within the overall education of a country. Therefore, discovering the best and most timely way in which HE can perform a central role in national development is a moral obligation for educational researchers. It is worth noting that any progression in education contributes to successful national development. On the other hand, any shortfall brings about its destruction. Thus, if any specific part of education, educational policy, management, governance or quality of education forms a barrier to national

development as a whole, then the education of the country will be regarded as declining, and the decline of education is a threat to national development.

Definition of private higher education

In this section key concepts are clarified: private education, and the types of private education available in the developing world. The advantages and disadvantages of private HE will be explored. However, in order to analyse the advantages and disadvantages, it is important to be familiar the forms of private HE under discussion. Before further data is examined, a definition of private HE must be distinguished so that the purpose of this thesis may be made clear.

Defining private education

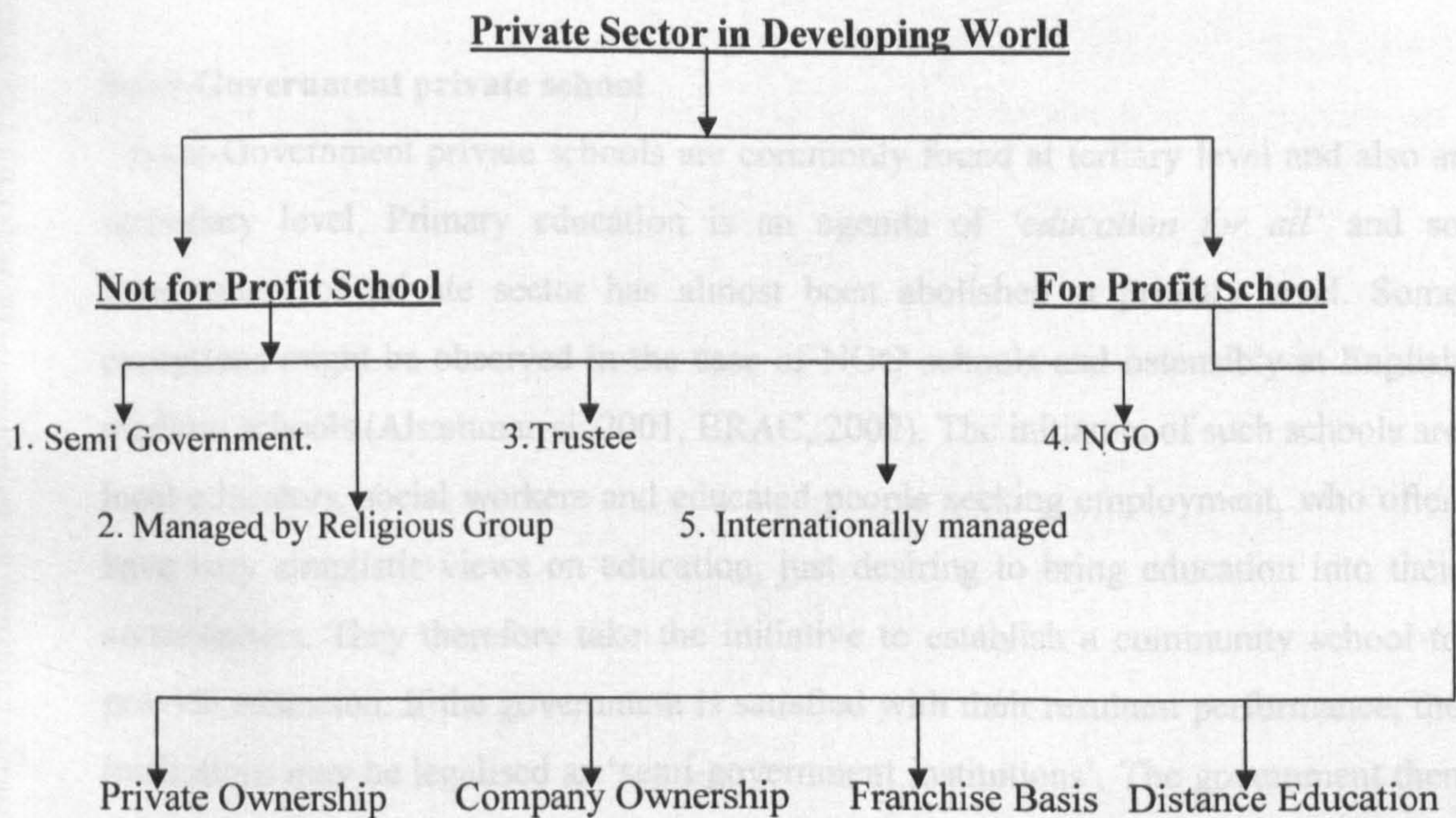
In determining the size and relative importance of the private sector in education, it is important to ascertain exactly what is being measured. Kitaev (1999, P43), in his study on private education in sub-Saharan Africa, defines private education thus:

"All formal schools that are not public may be founded, owned, managed and financed by actors other than the state, even in cases when the state provides most of the funding and has considerable control over these schools (teachers, curriculum, accreditations etc)."

In his study of South Africa, Mabizela (2000) defined private HE specifically as being those areas of higher education activities outside the control of state, where the state does not directly control organisational elements such as governance and financial structure. However, it is important to note that this is a simplistic definition and it fails to take cognisance of the complexities associated with the definition.

In consideration of the definitions outlined, and by compiling data from various sources, figure-1 aims to distinguish the different types of private HE:

Figure 1: Different forms of private institution in the developing world



Types of private Education

Earning a profit from educational institutions is not yet accepted culturally or legally, as claimed by Altbach (1999). Only in a small number of countries are profit-making HE institutions permitted by law. However, the claim made by Altbach is an official agenda, since the history of profit-making private education is not topical. To a certain degree, private schools entrepreneurs in some developing countries hide profit made by maintaining a 'diplomatic account' of their institutions. Researches by Tilak in Southern Asia (1999) and Altbach (1991) show that some institutions maintain two accounts: one is to prove to the government that the institution is a non-profit making organisation, the other maintained legitimately to show the real financial condition of the institution. That said, there is a correlation between different types of private institutions and the expansion of private education, The discussion that follows is a simple analysis of different types of private education headed *Not for Profit School* and *For Profit School*, rather than a critical investigation of them.

Not for Profit Institution

Figure 1 identified five types of Not for Profit institution:

Semi-Government private school

Semi-Government private schools are commonly found at tertiary level and also at secondary level. Primary education is an agenda of '*education for all*' and so involvement of private sector has almost been abolished at primary level. Some exceptions might be observed in the case of NGO schools and ostensibly at English medium schools (Alsammarrai, 2001, BRAC, 2002). The initiators of such schools are local educators, social workers and educated people seeking employment, who often have very simplistic views on education, just desiring to bring education into their communities. They therefore take the initiative to establish a community school to provide education. If the government is satisfied with their resultant performance, the institutions may be legalised as 'semi-government institutions'. The government then assumes responsibility for much of the funding of regular expenses (i.e. salaries and supplies) with some funds from tuition charges. Development activities are carried out in the main by government and international and national donor agencies; sometimes the initiators try to explore activities for development. Research by Tilak (1999) shows that, in India, the government finances between 90% and 99% of the total budget of such initiatives. This type of education is controlled and monitored by governmental agencies (i.e. local LEA, education board, federal university) and operates in the same way as its public counterparts.

Managed by religious group

Religious organisations have long been involved in establishing and supporting academic institutions. The Catholic Church established many of the earliest academic institutions in Europe, and in Latin America and Asia (Altbach, 1999). The only university older than the European medieval universities that is still in existence is the Islamic Al-Azhar University in Cairo. Besides, protestant religious organisations have been actively involved in HE, and include the first academic institution in the USA. Research by Sayed and Rose (2002) found that in sub-Saharan Africa both Christian and Muslim groups played a dominant role in establishing private HE. In fact, many of the early universities in Asia, the Philippines, Korea, China and Japan were established by Christian organisations (Gulosino, 2001). Hindu organisations in India,

Shinto and Buddhist groups in Japan, Buddhist in Thailand and Muslim in Malaysia, Indonesia and elsewhere have all been active in establishing academic institutions. These institutions are managed and financed by the religious groups who established them, or by donors. Although these institutions also charge tuitions fees, they are known as non-profit making organisations.

Trustee

In some countries, wealthy families, scientific societies and social welfare organisations operate private schools, managed by a board of trustees. Members of wealthy families as well as members of different societies (i.e. science or law clubs) contribute assets, such as land, property or money, to set up private institutions. One example is the Aga Khan University in Pakistan. The Aga Khan family is known as one of the wealthiest families in Pakistan, and has donated many of its assets to establish Aga Khan Foundations (AKF). The main function of an AKF is to establish private schools, and run them. Similarly, the Hazi Mosahin Trustee has established private institutions in Bangladesh, although this type of trustee and its establishment (i.e. Hazi Mosahin Trustee, Khan-A Sabuir Trustee, Hazi Danash Trustee) is now controlled by the government.

NGO school

NGO schools are a recent phenomenon in the developing world. Recently, a large number of NGO schools have been established in the developing world, working as a substitute for government agencies to assist the activities being carried out in the developing country. Recently, the performance of NGO has been attracting the attention of international donor agencies, and some of the donor agencies (i.e. DFID, USAID, UNDP, JICA, World Bank, IMF) have been investing educational donations in devolving nations via the local NGOs. As a result, a substantial number of NGO schools have emerged in the developing world. The donor agencies focus on primary education, adult literacy and non-formal education therefore the NGO schools mainly work in these areas.

Internationally-Managed School

In many developing nations, there is a large international population that lives and works with the international missions, (i.e. High Commission, Embassy), and donor agencies. They establish private schools to ensure a better education for their children.

Most of the schools use English as a medium of instruction (for instance, the New International School of Thailand, Bangkok, Thailand; The American International School, Dhaka, Bangladesh) However, exceptions may be found: if a nation has a large enough population in a specific country or region, they also usually establish a school to meet their requirements. This situation may also be seen in developed countries with a large number of immigrants living within a particular area, for instance, The Chinese School in London; The Bangla School in Whitechapel, London. This type of school is sometimes known as a *community school*. However, in developing nations, there is a considerable number of private, profit-making English-medium institutions offering 'O' level and 'A' level programmes. They see themselves as the model of an internationally managed school for the local elite.

For-Profit School

The World Bank (2002) claims that private education is considered to play an important role in the development of a '*global education industry*' and is increasingly seen as 'big business' in the context of the global economy. Presentations by The World Bank, for example, show that the value of the global education market place is equal to \$2 trillion, with 15% of that market situated in developing countries (LaRocque, 2000, Patrions, 2000a., Tooley, 1999). The point made by each of the authors is clear, but it generates a question: 'Is education a business industry?'

In some developing countries, private entrepreneurs take advantage⁵ of the success of profit-making education to benefit from not-for-profit private education, even though it is illegal (see: Tooley, 1999). Four types of private education operating in the developing world are identified here:

Private ownership

Research by Tooley (1999) finds that in Brazil, Dr. Chaim Zaher and his wife are the owners of three independent schools catering for children whose ages range from kindergarten to university level. The research explores the large number of coaching centres owned by individuals in developing nations (i.e. Argentina, Brazil, Colombia,

⁵ Most researchers, especially World Bank, argue in favour of profit-making private education with special focus on tertiary level. Their main philosophy is that people investing large amounts of money, potential labour and time into a certain risk, have the right to benefits from their successful entrepreneurship. They believe this attitude will bring a competitive atmosphere into education, which will lead to a good quality education by securing a competitive price.

India Peru, South Africa, Romania), offering private coaching to students who wish to study university degree programmes. Some of the coaching centres have recently been upgraded into universities, while a few offer university degrees in collaboration with local or international university counterparts. For instance, Bhuyan Academy in Dhaka, Bangladesh, owned by Rabia Bhuyan is a coaching centre that offers certain degree programmes (e.g. Law, Computer Science, Business Administration) of the University of London. Bhuyan Academy has also recently started to offer Bachelor and Masters degree programmes in other subjects to the local community, in collaboration with the National University of Bangladesh. Private ownership school at primary and secondary level is common in elite regions of the developing world. In Bangladesh, there are large numbers of private kindergarten and secondary schools in Dhaka and Chittagong; they are two rich cities in Bangladesh. Although some of these institutions officially claim to be non-profit organisations, there is no doubt that they are making profit. Tooley (1999) illustrates Delhi Public School (DPS) as an example.

Company ownership

Examples of 'education company' in developing nations include Objetovo, UNIP, COC, Pitagoras group, Radial – Brazil, NIIT, APTECH- India, TESCUP-Peru, Educor-South Africa, CODECS-Romania, and Speciss College-Zimbabwe. Most of them are registered with the local stock exchange as private limited companies, others are registered by the Company Act of the country, and others which operate as a business partnership (see: Tooley, 1999). The World Bank researcher claims these companies are non-profit based organisations, but draws a controversial conclusion whereby it is stated that the companies are serving the demands of the elite. This enables them to earn huge profits, which in turn helps them establish new branches in other areas and in neighbouring countries.

The key difference between individual and company involvement in private education is ownership. In private ownership, the institution's owner is an individual or their family, where the individual and/or their relatives are responsible for the profit and loss concern. However, when the institution is owned by a company, its risk and profit is distributed in accordance with the memorandum of understanding signed by the entrepreneurs.

All of the companies mentioned here have several institutions located in various regions. Some of them offer a variety of educational programmes at different levels (from primary to university), while others see themselves as offering expertise at a specific level. For instance, NIIT, India, is one of the largest providers of computer education and training, and has more than 500 centres around India, Nepal, Bangladesh, the USA and Canada, with market share of 37 percent, an annual turnover of US \$73 million and a profit of US \$13 million (Tooley, 1999). The Education Invest Corporation Limited (Educor) in South Africa has different types of schooling (kindergarten, secondary, coaching centres, university/university level institutions) around sub-Saharan Africa. The total enrolment to Educor's schools in 1998 was 300,000. Its annual turnover during the last ten years was approximately US \$26 million, with profits of US \$6 million. NIIT, India, and Educor, South Africa, are two dominant private education companies in the regions indicated. But there are also very small education companies that exist in developing nations. For example, Scott University, Kenya, is operated by a private company which had just 78 and 82 students registered in the academic years of 1996/97 and 1997/98 respectively (Oketch, 2004).

While discussing *company ownership* in private education, it is important to understand the concept of a *corporate university*. International, multi-national and, to some extent, large national organisations (e.g. banks, financial institutions, IT firms) offer education to their employees or to the local community. This is identified as corporate HE provision. For instance, Flemings, a merchant bank in London with 75 offices in 40 countries, began its own MBA programme in September 1998.

Franchise Basis

Recently, a few international universities, based mainly in the USA, have begun to offer their degree programmes to developing nations. In most cases, they operate their business via counterparts in a specific country (see more; Banya, 2001, Sayed & Rose, 2002, Oketch, 2004, Lee, 1994). To some extent, some of the overseas providers offer their education by establishing a campus in a specific country. For instance, MANCOSA, South Africa, buy their MBA programme from Buckingham Chilterns College in the UK, and the United State International University (USIU), Kenya, offers its own degree programmes but also buys the programmes of the

Phoenix University in the USA in addition to taking responsibility for the admission, administration, tutoring and assessment of students. Other examples are the Bond University, Australia, and the University of Nottingham, England, which operate campus' in South Africa and Malaysia. This situation can also be found in developed countries: for example, the London School of Business Administration (LSBA)⁶ buys degree programmes from the American International University⁷, MO, USA.

Distance Education

Without a campus, partner or local agent, some of the universities offer their education in developing nations through distance learning. Sayed and Rose (2002) note that Monash University, Australia, 'robustly' offers a distance learning MBA in South Africa. Phoenix University and the International University, both based in the USA, offer a wide range of programmes via distance learning, onto which candidates can enrol from anywhere in the world (see: ww.internationaluniversity.edu). Moreover, many universities currently provide online education via the Internet.

To conclude this section, it should be noted that the for-profit education sector generally manages its own finances. The government has no financial obligation to them, which explains why they lack governance or regulatory control. Some authors identify them as a self-financing school. This will form the central discussion of the thesis.

In some countries, distance learning education is also provided by public HE enterprises. This form of distance learning will be excluded from the discussion.

Mapping private higher education

The sections that follow will map out private HE before providing an explanation of the propositions for development of the private HE sector. The advantages and disadvantages of private HE will then be considered.

⁶ LSBA is a small school (3 to 4 rooms) located in London and having a substantial number of students from various countries who are working in UK but have student status for their visas. They are enrolled as 'paper students' of this institution. There are many colleges in London similar to the LSBA.

⁷ I visited this university in 2002. They do not have facilities to provide an education in USA, having only office space on a street known as 'AIU Headquarters' from where they control their international affiliates. It may be noted that LSBA operated a campus in Dhaka in collaboration with a local partner, IBAIS, which offered AIU degrees. IBAIS earned a lot of money by providing AIU's education; recently IBAIS has been approved as a private university in Bangladesh by the Ministry of Education.

Although enrolment into tertiary education has expanded considerably in developing regions since the 1970s, enrolment numbers in Southern Asia, particularly in Bangladesh and sub-Saharan Africa, remain extremely low. Gross enrolment ratios in the two regions are less than 3.5% and 4% respectively, compared with 20% in Latin America, 11% in Eastern Asia and Oceania and 9% in Southern Asia (UNESCO, 1999). According to Sayed and Rose (2002, p3):

“In the latter regions, universal primary education has already been achieved, and two thirds of children go on to secondary education.”

In Bangladesh, however, less than 70% of the child population attends primary education. Less than 25% attend secondary school. Lack of opportunity for primary schooling is an important reason for low enrolment into tertiary institutions in Bangladesh (Sayed and Rose, 2002). It may also be that low enrolment numbers for tertiary education in Bangladesh has resulted in the failure to develop a private HE sector earlier.

		1970	1980	1990	1997
Latin America and the Caribbean	Total	6.3	13.7	16.8	19.4
	Male	8.1	15.5	17.3	20.3
	Female	4.5	11.9	16.4	18.7
Eastern Asia and Oceania	Total	1.4	3.8	5.9	10.8
	Male	1.6	4.9	7.1	12.5
	Female	1.2	2.7	4.7	9.00
Southern Asia	Total	4.1	4.3	5.7	7.2
	Male	6.2	6.2	7.4	9.1
	Female	1.8	2.3	3.7	5.1
sub-Saharan Africa	Total	0.8	1.7	3	3.9
	Male	1.3	2.7	4.1	5.1
	Female	0.3	0.7	1.9	2.8

Table 3: Source: UNESCO 1999

It is claimed that large enrolment numbers into tertiary level education in Latin American and East Asian countries has resulted in the development of a mass private HE sector. For example, in Brazil, Colombia and Indonesia, two-thirds of enrolments are into the private sector, whilst over three-quarters of enrolments in Korea and the Philippines are into private HE institutions (Sayed and Rose, 2002).

Propositions of the expansion of private higher education

The following argument is based on the propositions for private HE expansion developed by Sayed and Rose (2002). Recently, the approach of government in developing countries appears to favour growth in the numbers of self-financing institutions. Data gathered from various literature sources show that the six core explanations for private HE sector development in the developing world are as follows:

Rising student enrolment at tertiary level

The discussion will analyse how an increasing enrolment rate influences private HE expansion.

Two different viewpoints are found when discussing the expansion of private HE. Some believe that the expansion of private HE increases the enrolment rate (i.e. World Bank, 2002; UNESCO, 1999; Sayed & Rose, 2002; Lassibille, *et al.*, 1999). Others argue that the rising student enrolment rate or a growing demand for education results in the expansion of private education (Altbach, 1999, LaRocque, 2000, Banya, 2000, James, 1993).

Sayed and Rose (2002), Adi (1999), Farid (1997), Bambang (1996), Baba (2000), Gonzalez (1987), without presenting empirical data, claim that private HE is responsible for increased enrolment rates in Indonesia, the Philippines and Japan. This may be true, but the fact remains that increasing demand for HE naturally creates a demand that enforces the establishment of the private sector. Below, discussion and data from an international perspective shows how an increasing enrolment rate influences the expansion of private HE.

Private HE in sub-Saharan Africa is a recent phenomenon. As seen earlier, the establishment of HE institutions immediately after Independence helped to develop

human capital to meet the needs of the emerging economies (Altbach and Teferra, 2004). The success of state-established HE increased demand for the existing places. Combined with population growth, the demand for university places has overwhelmed the HE establishment. The popularity and viability of the private universities has led to high expectations on the part of many African policy makers; that the institutions can fill the widening gap between supply and demand in HE (Thaver, 2003).

“Thus, private higher education institutions are seen as a way to alleviate the pressure on public ones” (Banya, 2001, P106).

The following discussion is based on data available in sub-Saharan Africa, Poland and Vietnam contexts. In Uganda, 35,000 students qualify each year, but the two public universities accommodate only 12,000 new students (Banya, 2001, Altbach, 1999). Soaring enrolment at a time when much of Africa was in economic decline has led to marked deterioration at public HE institutions. The sharpest increase in post secondary enrolment worldwide was reported in sub-Saharan Africa in 1996, where the number of students registered was 7.5% higher than the previous year (Sayed & Rose, 2002). The enrolment surge was the product of a previously constrained demand for higher education, and limited opportunities to obtain it. Classrooms have become increasingly crowded and resources, such as computer facilities and laboratory equipment, are overstretched. Banya (1999, p 40) observes:

“Certain African universities were effective institutions, but things have changed. They have been overwhelmed by huge numbers of students.”

The region provides higher education to just 3.5% of the college age population, compared with 60% in industrialised countries (UNESCO, 1998). In Kenya, 66% of high school graduates that qualified for university admission in national examinations were unable to secure a place at one of the country's six public universities (Altbach, 1999, Banya, 2001). That left some 22,000 students without access to public HE. Similar figures exist for countries in West and Central Africa. The World Bank estimated that:

“Most African countries will have to at least double their higher education enrolment over the next decade to simply maintain this current, very low, participation rate” (P 76).

Amaral and Teixeira's (2000) research into policies in Poland also highlighted two interesting phases. The first phase shows that the country's HE policy of 1987-91 increased the higher education enrolment rate. According to the policy, university entry requirements were lower than in previous years and introducing a 'compassionate system' in examinations increased the number of secondary graduates, encouraging the establishment of private universities to fill the gap.

A second phase revealed that, after political changes in Poland, the successor was more intent on quality rather than quantity, introducing a 'strict system' of university admission and secondary examination. This resulted in many private universities being closed down.

Huong and Fry (2002) found in their studies in Vietnam that students were more concerned about studying in a university, rather than studying the necessary subjects and courses to gain suitable employment. This resulted in higher enrolment numbers into university education.

In conclusion, an increasing enrolment rate influences the expansion of private education in the developing world. This especially applies to HE provision, as the government is more concerned with investing its education budget at primary level in order to achieve the 'Education for All' agenda. A decreasing student enrolment rate forced private schools to close. However, this will have a negative impact, in terms of quality and on the long term vision, as demonstrated in Portugal where an artificial demand to establish a private sector was created.

Influence of international agencies

The development of private HE in the developing world began in the early 1990s. Rapid expansion took place between the late 1990s and the early 2000s. In the early and mid 1990's, the World Bank (WB) put verbal pressure on third world governments to favour privatization of tertiary education. In the late 1990s and early 2000s the WB (2000) formally played a rigorous role. For example, it called for a

‘lighter touch’ in regulating HE, advocating that developing countries remove restrictions from the private provision of education services. Through the operation of the International Financial Corporation (IFC), the World Bank supported private investment in education, particularly at secondary and tertiary level in the developing world, with the aim of enabling public resources to be targeted towards increased access to better quality basic education (WB, 1999).

In consideration of the above, it may be claimed that international agencies, in particular the World Bank (WB) and World Trade Organisation (WTO), are influential in emphasising the role of the market in educational provision.

Global education industry and demand for international qualifications

In the context of globalisation there is increasing demand for qualifications that have currency internationally to give employment opportunities and other forms of mobility for graduates. The growth of this sector is also a response by overseas institutions to capture the higher education market and to benefit financially. This is informed by financial austerity and stringency issues in the North (Sayed and Rose, 2002). Altbach (1999) proposes that there has been considerable convergence of higher education institutions globally in recent years in terms of institutional models and the structure of studies, with common curricular elements in English the primary language of science and scholarship.

The World Trade Organisation (through the General Agreement on Trade in Services – GATS) and World Bank are influential in promoting private sector involvement in education. The WTO’s memorandum on Education Services (1998) emphasises the need to create the conditions within different countries for greater liberalisation of education services and to privilege a market system of educational provision. It is notable, however, that member countries have so far made very few commitments for education services and have any privileged services like energy instead. While Bangladesh has signed the GATS agreement, it is notable that very little funding has been set aside for education.

Currency and Capital Demand

The proposition made by Sayed and Rose (2002) for the expansion of private HE, particularly in the developing world, is associated with the obtaining of

qualifications from international providers, who themselves find the export of education to make good business sense. Specifically, overseas private HE is perceived to provide educational advantages for learners with regard to having, for example, an 'international qualification' that local institutions are unable to provide (Sayed & Rose, 2002, WB, 1999, Fisher, 1998, LaRocque, 2000).

Demands of decentralisation

This reason for the increasing prominence of private education is related to the policy of *educational decentralisation* advocated by various governments and international agencies during the 1990s (see: Sayed and Rose 2002). Educational decentralisation, particularly in the developing world, has created greater private sector involvement in educational provision through deregulation of state monopoly. This, it is argued, will increase efficiency and generate additional resources.

Differentiated demand

The advanced growth of private education is the *differentiated demand* for educational services.

This proposition suggests that, even if the state were to provide sufficient places in public schools and universities, the need remains to meet the particular demands of specific groups, for example, religious groups. State education is based on uniform and consistent provision, and as such does not necessarily provide an education for those with different needs or specific interests. Where there are such differentiated demands, private schools and universities can fulfil the requirements (Sayed and Rose, 2002, P6).

In HE, it is claimed that the need for different forms of education arises when particular groups of society make demands for an alternative, specific form of education (Kent & Ramirez, 1999). Religious groups, particularly Christian ones, have traditionally played an important role in the development of formal schooling in sub-Saharan Africa (Sayed & Ross, 2002). This has more recently extended to HE. For example, Kenya's four oldest private HE institutions are all Christian-affiliated. Demands by Muslims resulted in the development of Islamic universities in East

Africa, including the establishment of an Islamic university in Uganda 11 years ago by a Saudi Arabian-based organisation (Banya, 2001).

However, the idea of differentiated demand presumes that private HE accommodates diverse needs of a heterogeneous market. The diversity/plurality principles are further used to argue that private HE institutions can respond more quickly to specific labour market demands when compared with public institutions (Altbach, 1999).

Elite demand

The sixth explanation for the development of private schools and universities is *elite demand*.

“It is proposed that private HE emerges in response to demands for a better quality of education for the children of wealthy and prosperous sections of society, providing them with a competitive advantage in the labour market” (Sayed and Rose, 2002, P7).

Moreover, (Alam, 2003) asserts that elite guardians want to create an ‘elite and prestigious schooling environment’ where their children will not have the opportunity to form relationships with students from poorer economical backgrounds. In this argument, “private education is seen as a bearer of qualities which public education is perceived to lack” (Sayed and Rose, 2002). This suggests that within societies there is a need for a better quality education than that provided by the public HE sector. The rationale is based on a negative view of state education, in that it is perceived to be incapable of meeting the demand for relevant skills and knowledge, or it does so inadequately. The provision of a quality education to meet the demands of the elite is seen to be of increasing importance, as the ‘Education for All’ agenda focused attention on lower levels of education and resulted in its rapid expansion (Sayed and Rose, 2002). This expansion has often been at the expense of quality, and at the same time restricting resources and places at higher levels. The point of ‘quality education’ as provided by the private sector claimed by Sayed and Rose (2002) is not always true, but it remains a fact that private education often offers a substandard education. The private HE sector also provides the less capable student from an *elite* background with access to the HE system, thereby restricting enrolment opportunities for bright

students from poorer backgrounds (Lassibille and Tan, 1999). It may therefore be assumed that, once inept students are within the system, private HE institutions may find it difficult to provide a high level of education due to the lower overall capability of their students.

The growth of private education raises many issues. These include financial propriety, skewed access biased in favour of particular groups, curriculum content, staffing and staff training. Key questions arise concerning what should be regulated and how, and what information should be available to those choosing to participate. The questions put the balance of state and markets in educational provision and the consequence of more, rather than less, private provision for the achievement of national goals into sharp focus.

The impact of private HE

In general, privatisation is an internationally debated issue. Some opponents (Myronenko, 2003, Bakker, 2003, Park, 1995) of privatisation argue that private organisations have less *civic value* compared to their public counterparts because of their profit-making agenda. Whilst they object to privatisation generally, many of them advocate that emergency and 'fundamental services' (for instance: healthcare, power and energy, education, security, and the fire authority) should *never* be privatised.

They also had the view that, if such sensitive sectors are managed by private entrepreneurs, poorer people will not be able to access the facilities offered. Furthermore, entrepreneurs will sell such services at a higher cost to the consumers when they are in the greatest need (Drakeford, 2000). The term '*fundamental*' used by Drakeford is complicated, but it is important that we analyse it, as education is viewed as a fundamental requirement. The five elements generally regarded as *fundamental demands* of the human race are food, clothing, accommodation, education and healthcare.

All activities (from production to marketing) carried out in the food sector (the first fundamental demand) are currently handled entirely by private entrepreneurs. However, in some developing countries (especially in British colonies), the state once controlled the food sector⁸ by establishing a so-called '*Landlords*'⁹ system. This proved to be unfortunate for these nations, and the system no longer exists.

The proponents of privatisation argue that public organisations fail to properly utilise human resources, time, and funding, or sometimes they may mis-utilise all of the resources. As a result, public organisations are losing concern while at the same

⁸ It is important to note that food and education are two different sectors with different management processes, and the present management system of the food sector is not applicable to education.

⁹ Even though the landlords are appointed by the state, they are individuals, or a family, or a group of people whose aim is to make profit so, in a sense, the landlord system is an elaborate state controlled scheme. However, if private education proved to be '*education overlord*', it will become a problem for the country.

time increasing burdens for the nation (Chung, 2000, Lang, 2000). They also argue that public organisations are incapable of meeting the challenges of the 21st century by maintaining their traditional and bureaucratic approach. The writers' key argument is that public organisations are funded by taxpayers' money, therefore their inefficiency significantly restricts the nation's prosperity. Indeed, both sectors have strengths and weaknesses. Each can offer lessons to the other in order to play a more effective role in national development.

Education of its people is a fundamental responsibility for a nation. Providing a good quality basic education for all is essential. A country should provide a wide range of appropriate, well-timed, quality HE to academically-capable and motivated students in a precise way so that all suitable candidates can benefit from education. Private education is generally seen as a commercial entity, and has different structure and format. In that regard, the following two sections highlight the key characteristics of the private HE as a way of understanding the potential impact. These sections will not focus on the *comparative debate* between private and public HE. However, some of the facts which have been discussed as a *comparative debate* in literature may be analysed and interpreted. It is important to note that what is seen as an advantage in one region may be seen as a disadvantage in another region, On the other hand, situations regarded as disadvantage of a specific circumstance can be advantageous in other circumstances.

The following table will outline the major advantages and disadvantages, and the two sections that follow will explore them.

Table 4: Major advantages and disadvantages of private higher education

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Reduced government burden○ Cost effective○ Saves foreign currency○ More effective use of time, money and resources○ Swift management process○ Rapid response to labour market demand○ Responds to specific demands○ Globalisation○ Informative○ Good student support○ Competitive○ Better quality of education for less cost○ Lower unit cost○ Less bureaucratic○ Opportunity for promotion by merit without long service period○ Better career opportunities for challenging graduates	<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Serving a specific group of students who can afford to pay the fees○ Located in urban areas for commercial reasons○ Provide access for non-brilliant but economically elite students○ Subjects offered are ‘saleable’○ Poor academic atmosphere○ No research facilities○ Poorly qualified teachers○ Teachers hired from public counterparts○ Small size and shape○ Lacking in facilities for campus life, i.e. cultural and sporting activities○ Interferes with local culture○ Less job security○ Barriers to transferring credit and receiving visas for study at a foreign counterpart’s campus○ Lowering of entry standards to meet budget targets

Source: various literature

Advantages of private HE

From a review of literature relating to private HE, a number of advantages may be identified. I will discuss these briefly:

Reduced government burden

Demand for access to education at all levels is increasing. Data collected by the World Bank (WB), UNESCO and UNDP shows that some of the developing nations (Nepal, the Maldives, Sri Lanka, Malaysia, Taiwan, Thailand) have almost achieved universal primary education. The WB notes that these countries have smaller

populations and do not have large budgets for their HE, which helps them to achieve universal primary education. However, the WB statement is untrue in some cases, as Sri Lanka and Thailand have considerable budgets for their HE (Chandrasiri, 2003). The WB also states that many developing nations cannot provide access to primary education due to increasing demand and financial constraints. In such circumstances, countries are encouraged to be in favour of private provision for HE by donor agencies. In this situation, the WB (2001, p3) states that:

“The increasing recognition of the value of education by individuals, families, the business sector, and society has led to a demand for higher quality in all components of education, a willingness to pay for education and the proliferation of student financing initiatives.”

Primary and secondary education is preferred by developing nations in order to achieve the development suggested by different donor agencies. Therefore, they advocate that private provision of HE can reduce the government burden, which is why they are able to accommodate more students in better quality primary and secondary education, and job-oriented training.

Cost effective

Research (Guedegbe, 1999, Farag, 2000, Eisemon, 1992, Babalola, 2002, Asmal, 2002) shows that private institutions are more cost effective when compared with their public counterparts. Public institutions are not ‘transparent’ in operating their funds. In addition, they are poorly planned and incautious in preparing and executing budgets, resulting in financial deficits. Guedegbe (1999) highlights an interesting point:

“From the very beginning, there has been a question about whether low cost is an indication of a healthy administration and internal efficiency or rather a measure of a poor quality.”

In answering the question raised by Guedegbe, Babalola (2002) states that in ensuring a *cost effective* management system, Babcock University, one of the first private universities in Nigeria, has progressed significantly. Research by Tooley (1999) and Fehnel (2001) also illustrates that, although the ‘unit cost’ of a private institution is

lower, facilities for various services (e.g. information technology, computer, internet, multimedia, library) are inclusive. Furthermore, Levy (2003) argues that due to the profit-making attitude in competitive situations, a private institution needs to be cost effective to ensure a better quality of education is provided at a reasonable price. Some exceptions are noted by Fehnel's (2002) South African study, where some private institutions, especially 'ostensible franchise providers' are 'selling' certificates by establishing a local office rather than a school with a good infrastructure.

Cautious use of time, resources and innovative ideas

A government institution is known as a *bureaucratic* organisation where every process needs to be officially monitored. At present, a bureaucratic management approach can be viewed as a process for wasting time and resources. Private institutions are more cautious. Researches (Tooley, Developing nations, Kotecha, 2002 - South Africa; Nigam, 1992 – India; Lee, 1994 -Malaysia and Fairclough, 1994 – Thailand) show that private education offers lessons for students from different groups (Job holder, regular students, housewives) at different times (For example: morning, afternoon, evening, late evening), ensuring the best utilisation of a specific resource. In her study of South Africa, Kotecha (2002) observes that some of the private institutions offer day-time classes for their regular students, but also offer some professional training programmes, including executive MBAs, for professionals, by using the same resources in the evening. Other studies show that some private universities in Malaysia, India and China produce computer software in collaboration with international software manufacturers for various business organisations by coordinating and utilising their students' free time, bringing new knowledge and 'pocket money' to their students (Tan, 2002). In some places, such as Bangladesh, where there are no part time jobs available for students, this initiative could address the problem of 'student derailment'¹⁰ by properly utilising their 'free time'.

Private education is responsible for providing information about the programmes offered to students, parents and employers. To provide information, private institutions use modern technology, cost effective, informative, and long-term systems by which the students can become familiar with a new concept.

¹⁰ In Bangladesh, many students become involved with political corruption in the early stages of their student life in order to earn money (see more: Alam, 2003).

In developing nations, government institutions are far behind in the current technological revolution, especially in IT and Computer Science, whereas some of the private institutions are as good as institutions in developed regions.

Positive response to labour market trends

Private HE is the second choice for students and their guardians. The less capable and under-qualified students from a well-off background only consider studying a popular and job-oriented subject in the private HE sector after being rejected by public HE. To survive in a competitive market, private HE has to be always aware of job market patterns. At present, a degree in Computer Science or Business Administration is in demand for obtaining a job. While public education ignores job market patterns, *private training centres* attempt to fill the gaps. Recently, these places were covered by private universities or institutions. Research by Tooley (1999) and Tilak (1999) shows that NIIT is a *private computer education training provider* which produces *non-university* graduates, namely NIIT graduates. The job performance of a NIIT graduate is better than that of a university graduate so many employers indicate in their job advertisements: '*candidate should either be an IIT¹¹ graduate or an NIIT graduate*'.

Responses to specific demand

Private HE especially universities in the developing world (India, South Africa, Kenya, Bangladesh and Pakistan) provides education and training mostly in Business Studies, Computer Science and IT related programmes (Cosser, 2002; Garbers, 1996; Tilak 1999; Levy 2002; Mabizela 2002; Nadoo and Langue, 2003; Hopper, 1998; Nigam, 1992; Coffman, 1997; Tan, 2002).

Research by Tan (2002) in Malaysia claims that private institutions of HE maintain 'liaisons' with various employers to promote their graduates in the job market. Her research also explores the claim that private institutions of HE revise their course curriculum according to the needs of local employers, identified through research. Research by Tooley (1999) in India, and Tan (2002) in Malaysia shown that NIIT, APTECH, HARIZON also offer staff development training for different employers to fulfil their specific demands. Tan (2002, p201) sums this up:

¹¹ IIT is one of the of best public higher learning institutions in the world (possibly the best in India).

“Due to the profit making outlook of the private sector, it needs to be swift and transparent in answering the knock made by employers”.

Tan’s viewpoint generates a question regarding *civic value*. As it is widely claimed that public schools have more civic value and they need to concentrate more on the demands of employers; otherwise students from non-privileged backgrounds may not be able to progress onto the job market and this is a threat to national development. Indeed, because of ignorance of job market patterns, the *civic value* claimed by public schools will be falsified.

Much of the research shows that there is a correlation between a profit-making outlook, and swift and transparent management processes. A question therefore needs to be asked: if a sector is run using taxpayers’ money and does not have swift and transparent management processes, how can it claim to have greater *civic value*?

Globalisation

Changes in the global environment and the ensuing emergence of a knowledge-based economy has had an impact on the changing structure of work and economic activities (Kenway, 1996, Drucker, 1993). Some authors note that society and industry are becoming more dependent on universities to advance knowledge and technology and produce the required human resources for such an economy (Altbach, 1989, Salughter and Leslie, 1997). They argue that higher education will be strongly influenced by globalisation, as the infrastructure of a global economy depends on university-quality personnel.

The term *globalisation* is a much-debated issue. Some researchers argue that globalisation can play a vital role in the development of the world. In contrast, its critics argue that globalisation is simply the process of exporting Western goods, culture, values and traditions to the underdeveloped world. In my opinion, globalisation (also known as *internationalism*) has both positive and negative impact on the Third World. However, if some of the positive impact is caused by the private HE sector, this will contribute towards development.

Whilst remaining in Malaysia, South Africa, India or Kenya, students are pursuing education in the UK, USA, and Australia’s reputable universities, with modern

facilities to help them share and compare their knowledge and ideas within a global perspective.

Twin/shared programmes and *credit facilities* are available in some private HE universities or institutions. Joining these programmes, students can transfer their credit to overseas universities to study before completing their degree. They can save their preparation time required for *study abroad*¹² as may do this as part of their study programme.

Good student service

Literature shows that private institutions are more informed when compared to their public counterparts due to their modern *selling tactics*. They utilise every available source¹³ (web-pages, leaflets, prospectus, banners, sponsoring of sport) to publicise information about the institution and its courses in order to attract students. Moreover, employers can access information about course content, which helps them choose the right person for vacancies, or the right course for their employee's further study.

In developing nations, poverty and other constraints force students to have a '*study gap*', but access to HE for the students having a gap year causes problems. In many of the developing nations, students cannot pursue a degree in the public universities after a two-year study gap. Conversely, the private HE sector makes allowances for students taking a gap year.

Save foreign currency

Because of insufficient data, it is not possible to calculate the exact amount of foreign currency transferred from developing nations to the developed world or neighbouring countries in order to 'import' education for any demands not met internally. Research by Tan (2002), Lee (1994) in Malaysia and Alam (2003) in Bangladesh found that these countries were losing foreign currency because a significant number of students were pursuing HE abroad. The Malaysian study found

¹² It is the common intention of students from developing nations to study in the developed world. To do so, they always spend a significant amount of time to prepare themselves (preparing for TOEFL/IELTS examination, managing offer letter or I-20 from a foreign university), but they are often refused visas. This creates frustration as, after a certain time, they also cannot be admitted into their local public university.

¹³ Some of the research finds that by advertising 'aggressively', they are mis-utilising finances and bringing '*calumny*' practices into education.

that students were travelling to the developed world, so the Malaysian government invited universities from the developed countries to operate in Malaysia. Alam's (2003) research found that Bangladeshi students' first preference is to study in a developed country, which they believe is not only a good investment for their future, but also gives them the opportunity to earn money during their study period. However they often fail to obtain visas. If rejected for travel to a developed country, students may travel to Malaysia or India for their higher education.

The three researchers quoted above note that the preference for study in the developed world generally exists because of low quality education offered by local providers, and due to a desire to travel to the developed world. However, the private HE sector plays a vital role in motivating students to study at home.

Competitiveness

Supporters of private education argue that the strongest attribute of private HE is its competitive attitude. Their view is that private institutions always compete against each other, and they also compete against their public counterparts where huge investment and support have been received from the government. In addition, public universities take advantage of their *historical heritage*. Under these circumstances, private institutions always work in a competitive atmosphere and this leads them to provide a better quality education and to establish an efficient management process.

Disadvantages of private HE

The disadvantages of private HE are manifold. Before analysing them, it is important to note that, in taking advantage of the increased demand for education, the opportunists are abusing the concept of privatisation. Moreover, in developing countries, job availability for university graduates is limited. Some become involved in the business of private education, resulting in the establishment of more schools than the actual demand. This leads to an oversupply of places and affects the countries' educational standards.

Serving a specific group

International and national commitment is to distribute the ‘enlightenment’ of education to every household within a society. Most of the people in developing countries struggle to manage their food, accommodation and shelter requirements; consequently investing in education is a ‘fashion’ for most of them. Private education depends on tuition fees charged, so most of the poorer individuals cannot access it. Much of the research apart from some conducted by the World Bank¹⁴, finds that providing scholarship/loan/grants provision is not practised in private schools, and as a result, there are almost no opportunities for poorer students to be admitted. The WB (2002), Hossain (2001) and Woodall (1983) advocate that student loans/scholarships helps poor students to enter the system; however they ignore two vital issues:

- The privileged group present themselves as unprivileged but meritorious by ‘officially and technically’ hiding the original data in order to be a scholar of the institution, as it is a matter of prestige.
- Imbalance between the income of a new graduate and the inflexible repayment scheme for student loans. In addition, unemployment is a problem for poor students that prevents them from receiving a loan.

It is often evident that private schools provide a different quality of education and an educational environment that is desired by their *customers*¹⁵. In this regard Banya’s (2001, p 172) sub-Saharan study states that:

“Most of the students at private universities are from well-to-do houses. The parents of such students can afford the generally higher tuition fee that is demanded.”

In developing nations, private education always works in a specific field which is ‘sellable’ therefore ‘multi-disciplinary education’ is lacking. Moreover, private education has mushroomed in specific fields of study as demanded by the target group. As an example, pursuing VET education is not of interest to affluent people, which is why private provision offering VET education is far behind the recent IT

¹⁴ The World Bank indicates that the student loan provision is available in some developing countries. I believe this is a good initiative. However, in a country where getting job after completion of study is difficult, how is the student to repay the strictly regulated loan scheme?

¹⁵ The term ‘customers’ refers to the parents or guardians.

fashion. The ‘customers’ for private education are from privileged family backgrounds and have a more participatory role in school governance. This leads to a denominational cultural practice within the education system.

In conclusion, the development of the privileged group is not the whole concern of national development. On the other hand, it is historically proved that if the poor remain poor, they must bring about social decadence. Collectively, deprived groups sometimes cause unrest and revolution, and this hinders development.

Location

Research by (Caplanova, 2003, and Teixeira and Amaral, 2001) shows that private universities in Slovakia and in Poland are located in urban areas. They summarise that *‘most of the private universities are located not only in urban cities but also in the most urbanised areas of the cities’*. Indeed, a commercial attitude pilots the location of private education.

An in-depth analysis shows that private institutions are situated in places where rich customers live who demand a different educational, social and cultural atmosphere for their children and for themselves. Research by Caplanova (2003) Alam (2003) indicates that privileged groups legislate the rules and regulations and implement the law and order of their countries. As their dependants pursue private education, they are unconcerned about the deterioration of public schools, which results in change, especially in schools located in rural areas.

Providing access to under-qualified students

Although a good quality and diverse basic education is required for every citizen, the provision of HE will be opened exclusively for academically able students who have a high achievement in the prerequisite qualifications. This will help national development significantly through education (Lewin 1993, Tilak, 2002). Their views are that research and HE are interrelated and very sensitive, which always requires genius within the system to update the correlation between development, research and HE.

Research by (Caplanova, 2003, Huong and Fry, 2002) shows that the initiative, policies, promotional and marketing activities and overall outlook of private HE institutions puts a heavy emphasis on quantity, rather than quality, for their students' enrolment. Moreover, the rapid growth of private institutions is a threat to their survival. This forces them to provide access for the under-qualified, the non-qualified and the so-called qualified¹⁶ students.

Research (Oketch, 2004-Kenya, Natshoe, 2004-South Africa, Tan, 2002-Malaysia, Tilak, 1999-India, Gonzalez, 1999- Philippines, and Alam, 2003-Bangladesh) finds that studying in public universities is the first preference for the students, but their failure to be admitted to a public school forces them to enrol in the private universities. However, the decision to choose a university is not completely influenced by the quality of education offered, but is also affected by user fees.

Offer low cost and sellable subjects

The development of education is obviously beneficial, but a country needs a balanced development of its total education system. There is a need to evaluate the actual demand of an individual subject in the light of the employment market; thereafter access needs to be provided according to the demand identified. Imprudent and misleading calculations increase unnecessary educational budgets which will deplete the rate of return of education (Psacharopoulos and Patrions, 2002). Moreover, it produces skilled but unemployed graduates who can experience frustration, and this may divert them towards channelling their energies into less appropriate behaviour.

Roland (1997), Roland and Little (1982) notice that wider access to HE brings a lower quality education and so the entry qualifications for a job become higher. They argue that a clerical job is now occupied by a university graduate which would earlier have been occupied by a higher secondary graduate. But the job performance of the two different graduates is similar; in some cases, the higher secondary graduate is the

¹⁶ Under-qualified means that some students have the necessary prerequisite qualifications but their academic performances are not satisfactory enough. Non-qualified means the people who do not have the qualifications to pursue HE. 'So-called qualified' is interesting: in some regions, some private universities, particularly the purported overseas providers, treat 'life experiences' as an academic qualification.

more efficient. However, the production cost of a university graduate is higher than that of producing a secondary graduate.

Without measuring the actual job vacancies in the field of Computer Science, IT and Business Administration, private universities in developing nations offer Bachelor and Masters degrees mainly in these areas because of the *saleability* of the subjects (Sayed and Rose, 2002, Mabizela, 2000). It is worth noting that in many of the developing nations, Medical, Engineering, and Science graduates can be employed in administrative positions (i.e. in the Public Service Commission, city council, university or LEA) by sitting the test for the *Public Service Commission* which should be occupied by arts graduates¹⁷.

Research by (Bezuglov, 1999, Huong and Fry, 2002, Caplanova, 2003) shows that private universities offer courses in the field of arts and some social science programmes, where operation costs are lower. Their research further finds that in developing nations, private HE institutions rarely offer education in such programmes as electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, physics, medicine or agricultural fields, which cost more. For example, Caplanova (2003, P324) points out that:

“Private institutions are more likely to offer programmes in high demand and with low start-up cost fields: humanities, economics and other social sciences (and less so in technical fields or, for example, in medicine), only programmes offering degrees in such fields were selected.”

Whilst public universities are considering including an ‘ethics’ course for all of the programmes offered¹⁸ in order to foster *ethical values* in their graduates, private HE is ignoring ethical orientation where it is very necessary (i.e. for medical, psychology or philosophy courses) because of their selective outlook.

¹⁷ An Arts graduate cannot compete for a position for a Science graduate (telecommunications, computing, communication), but any position is hardly exclusive for an Arts graduate. Moreover, obtaining a higher score in the field of Science is easy; science students and graduates enjoy the advantages when they compete for the admission test/labour market.

¹⁸ Medical ethics is widely taught to medical, dental and nursing students; similarly business ethics is taught to business students. Gradually, ethics in journalism and government are being introduced. However, a general ethical sense is being developed for graduates of all programmes in order to teach them how to behave ethically, with the introduction of various issues (i.e. gender, race, religious, age).

Poor academic atmosphere

This area is often discussed within the context of developing nations. The overall educational atmosphere is poor in developing nations due to financial constraints, but a specific point is made by Caplanova (2003, p 324) concerning private HE:

“It is possible that private enterprise will more probably engage in cost-minimisation activities, which could reduce the quality of service provided.”

The main factor significantly influencing quality is the basic knowledge and capabilities of new entrants to the private universities. Some still maintain that the *input* quality of private universities is lower than that of public universities (Huong and Fry, 2002). However, the authors again illuminated a hopeful message for private higher education:

“The average test scores for entering the faculty of information technology of HUTECH have been raised from 17 in the academic year 97-98 to 23 in 2000-2001” (p45).

The above quotation can imply that private universities are considering the quality issue either for survival, or after passing a crucial transitional period.

Altbach and Teferra (2004) mention that the overall development of a university depends on the total number of research projects conducted¹⁹, and the quality of research. Unfortunately, it is documented that private universities in developing nations are not conducting research (Altbach, 1999, Caplanova, 2003, Amaral and Texeira, 2000, Huong and Fry, 2002). Moreover, there is almost no place in private institutions of HE for the study of a research degree²⁰.

Staffing

“Because of the dearth of qualified faculties, even at state universities, private universities face a major hurdle in this area. Both state and private

¹⁹ To receive research funds, universities require a good infrastructure and well-experienced research staff, hard to maintain in developing nations.

²⁰ However, the provision for studying research degrees in developing nations is small.

universities are finding it extremely difficult to keep qualified academics in the face of marginal salaries and facilities.” (Banya, 2001, p170)

Private universities are ‘fretfully’ suffering from staff shortages. The private HE sector is still in a process of experiment in developing nations, and which may fail at any time because of market pressures, new policies and regulations and existing political crises (see: Amaral and Teixeira, 2000). Therefore, faculty members are also under threat of job dismissal. Likewise, lack of job security causes anxiety in any private organisation.

In many instances, private universities compete with government universities, and governmental and non-governmental agencies form a limited pool of expertise. For example, the Islamic university in Uganda has been forced to employ Christian and/or secular professors due to a lack of Muslim scholars. The rector, Adamu, commented on the situation: ideally, it should be 50-50. But experts in Islamic disciplines are very few (see: Ajayi, *et al.*, 1996). This crisis of expertise is extremely high in developing nations, but also in mid-developed countries to some extent. In this instance, Tan (2002, p56) indicated the following to highlight the Japanese and Malaysian perspective:

“Many high schools had to quickly promote to university status even though their staff members were either unqualified or seconded from local public universities.”

Moreover, the migration of expertise from developing nations is of concern. The above circumstances result in two particularly negative impacts on private HE:

- Private universities are forced to employ less qualified teachers, willing to serve in a poor academic atmosphere and accepting the challenge to build a career in the private sector at huge job risk and with many responsibilities.
- Private universities employ ‘guest’ teachers working with the government universities. This seriously lowers the public universities’ educational standards. The purported ‘guest’ teachers are tremendously busy in the various private universities, delivering their lectures and joining the ‘photo

*season*²¹, giving less time and attention to preparing their lessons for the public universities. The students at the public universities find themselves unable to gain access to their teachers.

Size and Shape

Socialist educationalists argue that a good teacher can transfer knowledge and ideology in the quickest time and in the most appropriate method (Perkision, 2003, Cheng, 1999, Steadman, et. al., 1995). They however advocate that the maturation and critical analysis of acquired knowledge, and student adaptation to globally and nationally-debated issues, is very important, when supplied by the overall schooling atmosphere. They therefore believe that universities need rich libraries, laboratories, sport grounds, and facilities in which to practise cultural programmes, as well as on-campus accommodation.

The above-mentioned facilities are rarely found in private institutions of HE. Most of the private universities do not have their own campuses. They are located in a rented multi-stored building, possibly where there is no natural daylight. In such a cost-effective situation, expecting a sports ground is a non-starter, with the exception of universities genuinely²² operated by religious groups. However, research by Nitshoe (2004) and Oketch (2004) states that a few private universities in South Africa and Kenya have recently been concentrating on gaining a campus.

Interference with local culture

This problem is noticed especially in Malaysia, Bangladesh, Pakistan and some other Muslim countries in the Middle East. The concept of internationalism brought about by private HE causes a change in local culture. A substantial number of international universities²³ operate in Malaysia and India, and thus the universities and their surroundings are influenced by Western culture (Altbach, 1991, Meyer, 1999). As a Muslim country, Malaysian people are worried about this (Tan, 2002). In Bangladesh, some private universities advertise that their campus is operated with the values of Western culture. This is strongly condemned by Islamic groups, and sometimes results in clashes between the two groups.

²¹ Arranged by private universities/institutions to promote their organisation to the local community.

²² There is a demand for private universities operated by religious groups. In these circumstances, some business-oriented educational organisations claim themselves to be religious organisations.

²³ Mainly UK, USA and Australian universities.

Visa and credit transfer

This issue is also related to the *franchise operation* of HE in the developing world. Some of the foreign or local institutions are committed to their students such that after studying for a certain period on a local campus, students will be able to study for the remaining years overseas (see: Wagner and Schnitzer, 1991, Brown, 1997). In some franchise providers located in Malaysia, Bangladesh, and India, there is no provision to complete the final year without studying abroad. To study abroad, students must be granted a visa, but it is difficult to obtain one. Some students whose visa applications were denied were unable to finish their degree, albeit they had studied hard for three years out of four (E-mail correspondence received from the Malaysian Graduates Association in Bangladesh).

Studying in the developed world is exciting for students from the developing nations, so there is a market for credit transfer programmes (Altbach, 1991). In developing nations, private universities continually market the fact that they collaborate with foreign HE institutions, and that students can transfer their credit to the universities located in industrialised countries. Unfortunately, however, they sometimes lie; or the foreign university may only grant a few of the credits for study on a local campus (Tan, 2002, Brown, 1997). Some international providers (i.e. California International University, World University of America) have no recognition to offer the degree locally or offshore and so, because of the qualification framework, their graduates are not offered a good job or place for further study at a recognised university.

Although the issue of ‘colonialism’ is ignored in the discussion of private HE, there is a risk of colonialism in HE through franchise provision.

“Its success is evidenced by the fact that, in the year 1999, 70% of the British Universities had affiliations with higher education institutions in Malaysia. They were largely ex-polytechnic universities²⁴, included some other universities such as Sheffield, Manchester, Exeter and Sussex” (Tan 2002, p 49).

²⁴ In 1992, all polytechnic institutions in the UK converted to universities.

What is certain is that universities in the UK, Australia, and the USA are gaining access to the developing nations' HE market in order to gain financial benefit; therefore their entering may have a *colonial* impact on HE. Another issue needs to be considered: if, somehow, private institutions of HE close (from market pressure; death of the entrepreneur, especially those in sole ownership), what will be the effect on existing students and the status of the graduate's alumni?

In conclusion to the above two sections, I must consider that a country needs private provision to meet increasing and unfilled demands, even though private provision has strengths and weaknesses. It is important to note that, as the sector is growing rapidly and imprudently, opportunists are trying to take advantage and are mis-utilising the concept. This is because, as a new sector, established governance, rules and regulations within the system are lacking. Moreover, they take advantage of the weakness of the existing rules and regulations. It is widely demonstrated that decent governance and proper implementation of legislation helps a sector function effectively. Thus, it is important for every sector to have a decent, modern and established process of governance.

In the next section, I will analyse the governance and regulation challenges of private HE, focusing on the developing world.

Introduction

Before focusing on the governance and regulatory challenges of private HE, the broader perspective of governance needs to be discussed. The term ‘*governance*’ mainly denotes a formal power given to policy makers, legislators and key people to control a particular sector. The *pleaders* believe that the Act, or Code of Conduct, legislated to ensure transparency for decision-making and taking action to achieve the aim(s) targeted, is a key component of governance.

Earlier, scholars viewed that governance was a legal power given to a particular body or agency in order to control the entire department. However, scholars of the 21st century are becoming adherents to a participatory approach. In this they believe that governance is an informal way for the coordination of an enterprise/sector that helps to correlate both minor and major units, as well as the personnel of an enterprise, in order to function effectively (Jimenz and Tan, 1987, Erdenesuren, 1995). Because of the growing popularity of the participatory approach, every individual sector uses the term to mean the *formal and informal agreements and arrangements* of the management process.

Education is one of the central sectors of a nation and educational governance is primarily responsible for achieving the targets selected for the national development by ensuring a quality and epoch-making education. The WB (2000) does not completely agree with this view, but believes that governance is an important weapon for the effective functioning of the sector; they therefore state:

“Good governance is not a sufficient condition for achieving high quality, but it is certainly a necessary one. Governance sets the parameters for management. A mismanaged enterprise cannot flourish, and institutions of higher education are no exception.” (p59).

The data used in the WB’s publication is collected from the developing world, especially from South Asia, and highlights that *nepotism, cronyism, political activism* and *corruption* are powerful enemies that hinder good governance in HE. This results

in poor academic freedom, *non-meritocratic selection*, financial instability, non-accountability and corrupt governing councils in HE institutions. Research by Alam (2003) in Bangladesh demonstrates that political activism and corruption are the main hindrance to transparent governance. His research shows that students involved in politics are given good grades in examinations. Academics are recruited for their political prejudices. Alam claims that deans and the heads of departments are also appointed by the government, and the heads of institutions change with any change of government. In such a situation, ensuring good governance in HE institutions is an 'illusion'. Although corruption and contaminated political activism is the main hindrance to achieving quality education, people still blame its governance as it is accountable for ensuring standards in education. However, some authors (Fisher, 1998, Moja and Hayward, 2000, Zumeta, 1992) advocate that educational governance is a process that must deal with the core function of education, as below:

- Ensuring quality basic education for all
- Ensuring quality higher education to those who are academically qualified and interested
- Addressing problems experienced within the sector or its associates.
- Providing a wide range of courses to every community (in terms of subject, duration, title) by identifying the actual differentiated demand.
- Ensuring equitable distribution and development of education (in terms of sex, race, region)

Governance and regulation challenges of private HE

Systematic and officially-recognised private education is a fast-growing and recent phenomenon. Nevertheless, private *higher* education in developing nations is a very new experience, and the sector lacks proper governance and regulatory control. No specified governance and regulatory process has been set up especially for the provision of private HE in developing countries. The private HE sector is guided by a general bill/Act of Higher Education, which was legislated principally for the operation of public higher education²⁵ (see: Sohail and |Saeed, 2003, Gonzalez, 1998). In such circumstances, private HE in developing nations is facing a crucial challenge

²⁵ The notion of public higher education and private higher education is completely different.

about governance and regulatory approaches which restricts it to functioning with the core functions of educational governance and regulation outlined earlier.

Due to the lack of specific literature focused on the governance and regulatory aspects of private HE, the following discussion will analyse issues from a number of concerns raised by various authors when identifying the advantages and disadvantages of private HE. The discussion will attempt to highlight the recent governance and regulation challenges of the private HE sector.

Investment and rate of return

In establishing a private HE institution, entrepreneurs must invest a certain amount of money, time and effort; consequently they expect to receive a return on their time, effort and money invested. This intention habitually leads them to earning a profit from their established educational enterprises (Ministry of Education,-Malaysia 2000). Because of this profit-making attitude, entrepreneurs of private HE institutions essentially brainstorm in order to earn more profit, and this sometimes brings more disadvantages (James and Benjamin, 1998). On the other hand, governments do not provide funds and therefore the governing agencies (UGC, UAC, LEA) cannot 'rigorously' control or force them to follow rules and regulations designed for the public HE sector (Siedal, 1991, Baba, 2002, Baba and Tanaka, 1997). In comparison, another view is that, whilst a HE institution is financed by the government, it may be biased by the existing political command (Alam, 2003).

It is globally evident that a good number of HE institutions have collapsed because of the strict rules and regulations imposed by their governing authorities (see: Shin, 1990, Amaral and Texeira, 2000). For instance, Amaral and Texeira's study illustrates that more than 60% of private universities in Poland have collapsed as a result of the implementation of recently designed rules and regulations. However, some researchers advocate that every new school needs to fulfil a strict registration process before its legal operation, which will prevent against unexpected collapse. On the other hand, some critics, along with donor agencies, are in disagreement with this philosophy. They believe that countries should remove the strict registration process. Where a country depends on foreign aid and has less competent researchers, its governance should be influenced by its donors.

Autonomy

Most of the institutions of HE, especially in university provision, are autonomous. Being autonomous, a private university is reluctantly controlled by its governing body (Park, 1995). Moreover, in developing nations, private universities do not compete for research funds (Valisno, 1995) and their research activity is virtually zero (Valisno, 2002). Being self-financing organisations and not seeking research funds, autonomous private universities are not carefully monitored by the controlling authorities (UGC, MOE, UAC).

Private universities in developing nations generally follow the guidelines of the controlling authorities when they apply for a licence but, once the licence is given, are detached in the operation of their programmes (see: Chonhanchob, 1985). It is clear that the registration process can only ensure that a proposed university has fulfilled the entry requirements. It is, however, unable to ensure an appropriate day-to-day management process. Indeed, the '*slumbering motive*' of the entrepreneurs cannot be controlled and monitored by legislation (Huong, 2002). Additionally, as a private university is an autonomous body, it is logically free from any regular inspections conducted by the controlling body (Wu, 2001).

Franchise and Foreign provider

Some researchers claim that recently, because of currency, capital and globalisation, students in developing nations have pursued foreign higher degrees (Sayed and Rose, 2002, Tan, 2002). However, offering foreign education in developing regions has a long heritage. The establishment of education in 'colonised countries' was dominated by foreign providers, especially Britain, and a good number of providers at secondary level (local/foreign) still offer foreign education ('A' and 'O' Levels, GCSE). After sometime, each country began to provide education in its own language by designing new course curricula suited to local students, especially at secondary and primary level. The scholars of developing nations believe that this can result in better education for the majority of people. Conversely, a group of people, especially the *elites*, maintain a different philosophy: they consider English as the medium for the education of their children.

University level education in developing nations is mainly conducted in English, but the quality of courses offered and the course curriculum are substandard and outdated

(Alam, 2003). In some developing nations, university education has recently been provided in their own language, but this seriously affects the standard of education as most international publications and developed course materials are in English. Taking these opportunities along with *currency and capital* and globalisation demands, foreign providers are operating in developing nations (Zumeta, 1992). These providers are treated as *foreign providers* and are reluctantly controlled by the local controlling authority. The local governing authority cannot significantly control and monitor them because of the following key constraints:

- Foreign providers do not offer local degrees, so they principally follow the rules and regulations enforced by their foreign counterparts or by their original governing authority.
- The targeted student population is from an economically elite background or has professional experience. In developing nations, situations of law and order are controlled by the elite group so the governing agency is lenient towards the schools where the elite are involved.
- Foreign or franchise providers offer degrees from developed nations. Researchers in developed nations play a dominant role in designing policy for the developing nations. Moreover, developing nations are always threatened by their donor countries, so these situations restrict them to forcing foreign providers to follow the local rules and regulations.

Taking these opportunities, some of the purported foreign providers demean the Third World's HE atmosphere, but governing authorities are defenceless in controlling them (Tan, 2002).

Distance learning provider

Distance learning is the prime concern of the governance and regulatory challenges of private HE. The three challenges outlined earlier can be addressed if the governing authority has genuine and audacious intentions. The notion of the fourth challenge is complex. Being a distance learning provider, the HE institution does not require a physical presence in the local market. They can operate their programme from the country of origin through the internet, multi-media, video conferences or postal communication. In such circumstances, the governing authority can demotivate the

student from joining the distance learning providers through publicity. But this is not its task (see: Tan, 2002, and Sayed and Rose, 2002).

Self-governance attitude of the private HE sector

The entrepreneurs of private HE institutions believe that they are working in a competitive atmosphere, so their governance and policy should be guided by the market. In this context, a quotation from a vice-chancellor working with a private university in South Africa is relevant:

“Aside from these methods of external quality assurance, in the long run, the educational market will determine whether we are delivering effectively against quality and standards. The growing number of students we are recruiting demonstrates that we must be setting things right”
(Sayed and Rose, 2002, p9).

This is not an acceptable approach for many reasons. However, there are two main issues: firstly, the operation of private providers has a direct impact on public institutions and leaves students unprotected. As such, this is an abdication of responsibility by government. In addition, in most countries, there is no ‘free market’ for HE as the government regulates the activities of private providers in some way, and with good reason. Secondly, this problem is mainly concerned in the context of the third world. Students not only need the minimum entry level qualifications, but also a certain level of knowledge in order to follow a university education. Private providers are providing access to students who do not have the necessary entry level qualifications, or who do not possess a certain level of knowledge to follow the university education, in order to increase their market. For instance, by having a certain level of qualification and knowledge, a student may be fit to undertake a diploma level degree, but he or she is studying at ‘Honours degree’ level in a private university. This leads to further problems:

- While under-qualified students can access the system, they demand weak schooling in order to pass the programme studied.
- Under-qualified students possessing an ‘artificial’ certificate at degree level from private universities are competing with students who have passed from the public HE sector, where achieving a good result is seen as comparatively hard in the job market.

Indeed, students who are less qualified must have the right to study on the appropriate course in either the public or private HE sector. Hence the purpose of governance is to ensure that every individual student is pursuing the right course for them.

Corruption

Corruption is one of the significant concerns in the discussion of any issue relating to the third world. Some international developmental organisations (e.g. DFID, WB, UNESCO) have identified and justified the idea that corruption limits the development of developing nations (Clinton, 2003). An atmosphere of corruption, dishonesty and bribery in education is a serious disease (Alam, 2003). People of third world countries are not accountable and transparent. Furthermore, educational governance is politically predisposed when accountability is a major concern. Because of cultural constraints, lack of political commitment, weak organisation of governance and regulatory systems, and a lack of modern facilities in preventing corruption, each governing agency (e.g. UGC, MOE, UAC) and governed institutions (University, HELI) has the scope to blame each other when anything goes wrong (see: Alam, 2003). For instance, in Bangladesh HE, if anything goes wrong as the result of the implementation of new policy, the Ministry of Education claims that it has only followed the recommendations made by the University Grants Commission. On the other hand, the UGC claims that it has given the recommendations which are deserved by the key people of the MOE. This situation is one of the motivators to the people involved in corruption. Since the total education sector of the third world is sheltered from corruption, the governance and regulatory challenges are becoming tougher where research recommendations to encounter the challenges of governance and regulatory approach are not followed (see: Alam, 2003, Altbach, 2004).

Conclusion of literature review

I will conclude this chapter by identifying and summarising some of the key concepts gained through earlier discussion. However, before concluding, I should note the probationary remarks. In the discussion of literature review, I did not mention or examine the research instruments used by scholars, as I want to describe them in my methodology chapter – this will aid me in justifying and comparing instruments used when conducting my research.

The discussion about national development provides three schools of thought: economists, socialist, and the human needs perspective. I argue that the three areas of development are interrelated. One cannot thrive without the others. For instance, to achieve higher economic sustainability, a nation demands social and political commitment and stability. On the other hand, without having social freedom²⁶, it is not possible to ensure that the human needs of the individual are met. However, without economic growth, social freedom²⁷ cannot be achieved. In order to achieve economic growth, a country should adopt a *human capital* theory by providing the necessary education and training to individuals.

The discussion of the role of education in national development shows that researchers consensually consider that education must play a vital role. However, the level or type of education has to offer for national development is an issue for debate. Adherents of different groups (e.g. VET, adult, non/in-formal, general, science, and primary, secondary and tertiary educations) advocate their own perspectives. I consider that each type or level of education is important for a specified perspective. Instead, I argue that HE and research develop the content and system of each type or level of education. Thus, to enrich the content and system of any type or level of education, it is important to create an appropriate HE and research atmosphere.

The discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of private HE demonstrates that private education plays both positive and negative roles. Undeniably, it is important to note that, for the people involved in the private HE sector, existing problems experienced within the third world's HE and culture and politics force private HE to play a negative role. Good governance, policy and a regulatory approach can help the sector function effectively. However, people do not read the 'Bible of Policy' as they perform their regular activities. Consequently, it is imperative that the policy makers and legislators formulate realistic rules and regulations which will be practicable when performing regular activities.

²⁶ Equity and participation in quality of life

²⁷ Social freedom results in an appropriate distribution of human needs.

Chapter 3: Country context – Bangladesh

Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of Bangladesh and the Bangladeshi education system, focusing on HE management, with a brief discussion on the private HE sector in Bangladesh. The key to achieving high rates of economic growth, whilst ensuring that the fruits of such growth are equitably shared by the population, lies in development and utilisation of human resources, the only resource Bangladesh has in abundance (World Bank, 2002). Education, therefore, has been recognised as a priority sector by all governments since its independence (The Fifth Five Year Plan, 1998). What follows is a brief review of the existing education sector in Bangladesh with a view to identifying key issues that need to be considered for my research on the issue of HE management.

Country profile – Bangladesh

Bangladesh is a country in Southern Asia with a population of more than 145 million (World Bank, 2002). It is a newly emerged country: under British rule for about two centuries and a part of Pakistan for 24 years. Since its emergence in 1971, Bangladesh (formerly East Pakistan) became an independent nation after seceding from Pakistan. However, the country's administration is still perceptible as 'colonised governance' by its internal 'privileged' people (Clinton, 2003).

It is one of the poorest countries in the world in terms of economic and social freedom, with a GDP of US \$320 in 2001 (World Bank, 2002 [different data available on GDP from various sources]). Differences in living standards between privileged and poor people are relatively higher than in other developing nations in Asia (WB, 2002). WB (2002) also identifies that "Bangladesh's greatest strength is its people. Ethnically homogeneous and firmly wedded after much turmoil to the institutions, they are well known for hard work and resilience under stress". It further states that if Bangladesh is to develop, it has no alternative other than the proper utilisation of its population. Reports from the WB (2002), UNDP (1999) and UNESCO (2000) suggest that Bangladesh urgently needs to provide its over-crowded population with appropriate education and training in order to equip them to enter the labour market.

This requires a strong governmental commitment. But a depressing fact noted by WB (2002) is that the political leaders of Bangladesh have no strong commitment to develop the country. Moreover, WB's (1991) report states that the chief executive of the government "does not hesitate to lie on the issue of development activities to receive funds from donors".

Another, the World Bank (2002) data reveals that, in the last 25 years, Bangladesh's economy has only developed at a 4% annual GDP growth rate, leaving it still poor and basically dependent on foreign aid for its development, due to its political instability. The politicians and privileged people blame the continuing deprived state of Bangladesh on its recent independence. Again the WB's (2002) report suggests that Bangladesh's economy and human development could have grown faster than its progression in the last 25 years, since independence in 1971, if it had taken substantial steps in educational development. For example, the economy of South Korea, Thailand and Malaysia reached upper middle-income position within a span of about 25 years after achieving political stability. This outstanding improvement in living standards and quality of life for the citizens was achieved by securing an appropriate educational atmosphere in order to provide high quality education (World Bank, 2002).

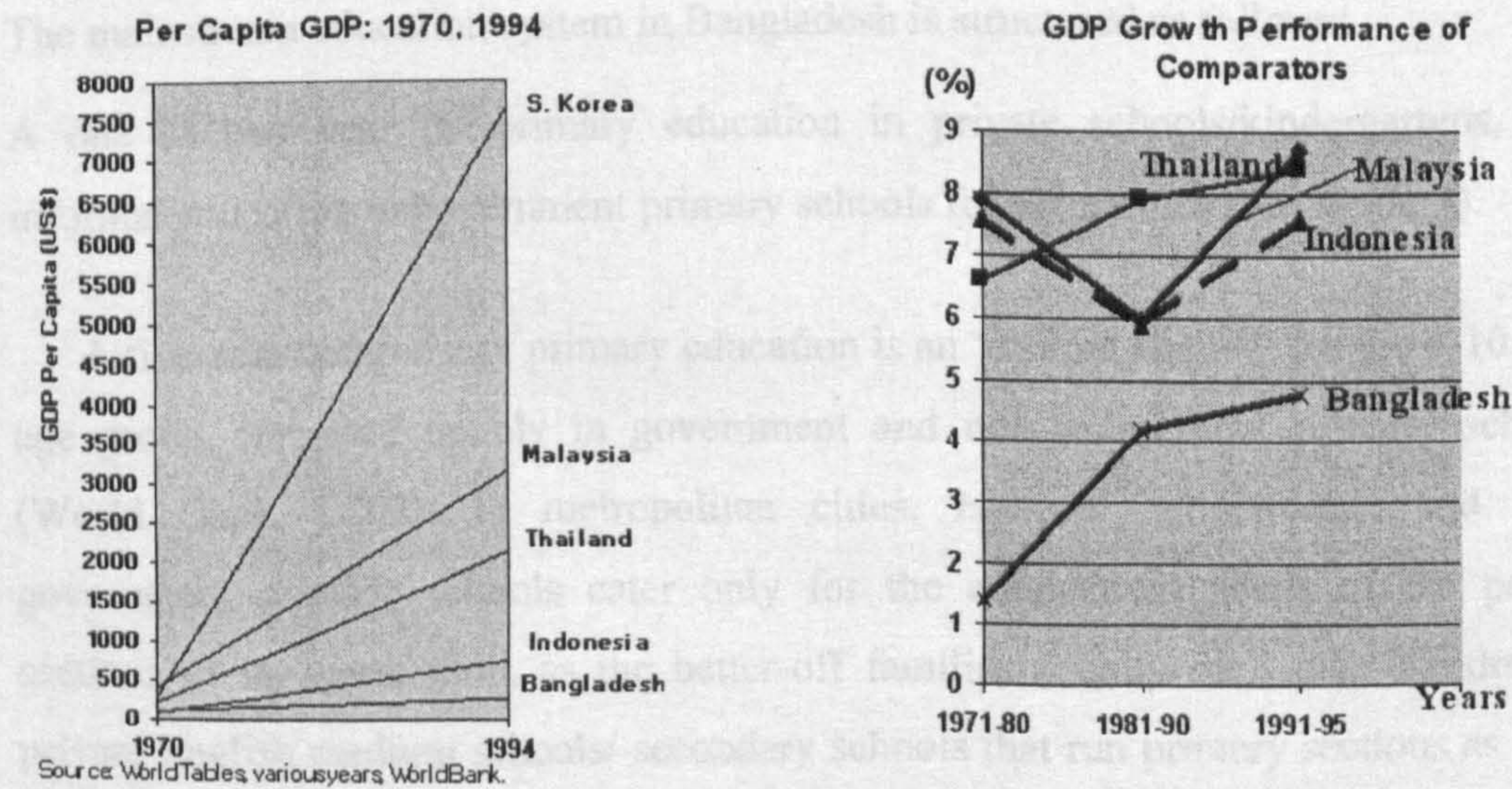


Figure 2: Source, World Bank 2002

Education system

Education Sector in Bangladesh: A Review

The review has been organised as follows. After introducing the overall structure of the education system in Bangladesh, profiles of the individual components of the education sector have been drawn, with a focus on HE management. In drawing the profiles, official data sources have primarily been used, these supplemented by other sources where necessary.

The Education Sector of Bangladesh: Structure, HE Management Structure

The education system in Bangladesh is characterised by co-existence of three separate streams. The mainstream is a vernacular-based secular education system carried over from the country's colonial past. There also exists a separate religious system of education. Finally, based on the use of English as the medium of instruction, a third stream of education modelled on the British education system (and using the same curriculum as in Britain) has grown in the country's metropolitan cities.

However diverse the three streams may appear, there are common elements. Scope exists for the reintegration of graduates from one stream to another at different levels.

The mainstream education system in Bangladesh is structured as follows:

A one or two year pre-primary education in private schools/kindergartens, and informal education in government primary schools for six months (see figure 3).

A five-year compulsory primary education is an 'official agenda' for the 6-10 year age group, imparted mainly in government and non-government primary schools (World Bank, 2002). In metropolitan cities, however, government and non-government primary schools cater only for the educational needs of the poorer sections of the population, as the better-off families usually send their children to private English medium schools/ secondary schools that run primary sections as well. There exists, however, a substantial number of NGO non-formal schools catering mainly for opt-outs from the government and non-government primary schools. Very few NGOs impart education for the full five-year primary education cycle. Because of this, on completion of their 2-3 year non-formal primary education in NGO schools, students normally re-enter government/ non-government primary schools at higher

classes (Leach, 2003). NGO schools differ from other non-government private schools. While the private schools operate like private enterprises, often guided by commercial interests, NGO schools operate mainly in areas not served by either government or private schools, essentially to meet the educational needs of the vulnerable groups of society. They usually follow an informal approach to suit the special needs of children from such groups (Leach, 2003).

On completion of primary education, students (11+) enrol for junior secondary education lasting over three years. At the end of this phase, some students branch out to join the vocational stream offered at Vocational Training Institutions (VTI) and Technical Training Centres (TTC), run by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Labour and Employment respectively, while students in mainstream education continue in government and non-government secondary schools for a two-year secondary education in their respective areas of specialisation e.g. humanities, science, commerce, etc. At the end of their secondary education, the students sit for their first public examination (SSC) under the supervision of six education boards known as Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education (BISE). Students of religious education and English medium streams also sit for their respective public examinations, Dakhil and 'O' level, conducted by the Madrasah Education Board and London/Cambridge University respectively, facilitated by the British Council in case of the latter.

After 10 years of schooling at primary and secondary levels, students (16+) who succeed in passing the Secondary School Certificate (SSC) examination have the option of joining a college for a two-year higher secondary education (HS) in their respective areas of specialisation, or enrol in technical/polytechnic institutions. HS education is provided by intermediate colleges. After a two-year higher secondary education, one has to sit for another public examination known as a Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC), conducted by the Education Boards, in order to qualify for further education. Students of religious and English medium streams also sit for their respective public examinations, Alim and 'A' levels, again conducted by the Madrasah Education Board and London/Cambridge University respectively, in order to qualify for further education. It is common for most of the students pursuing higher SE to be

at intermediate college because, with a higher secondary certificate (HSC), they can pursue further education in various fields. On the other hand, the scope for pursuing further education for VET graduates, polytechnic graduates, or other graduates, is limited. After HSC, students can enrol for bachelor studies (Alam, 2003).

Undergraduate education of various durations (three to four years) are offered to 18+ students at a number of public and private universities/degree colleges/technical colleges/specialised institutions. Successful completion of a degree course is a pre-requisite for appointment to a 'white-collar' civilian job.

Ordinary and Honours are the two types of bachelor programme. Ordinary bachelor degree courses are provided by colleges. With a bachelor degree, a student may then proceed to pursue Masters degree studies (see: figure 3). Honours Bachelors degrees and Masters programmes are provided by the specialised institutions or universities. Some of the colleges, known as University Colleges, are permitted to offer honours at Bachelor and Master level education.

Post-graduate education, normally of a one to two year duration, is provided at universities and selected degree colleges and institutions.

Scope for pursuing research degrees is very limited in Bangladesh. Only a few public universities are permitted to provide research education (M.phil/PhD) in limited fields (BANBEIS, 2002).

THE PRESENT EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE IN BANGLADESH												
Age	Grade											
26+	XX					Ph. D(Engr)	Ph. D(Medical)					
25+	XIX	Ph. D		PostMBBS Dip								
24+	XVIII			M.Phil(Medical)								
23+	XVII	M.Phil	Ph. D			MSc(Engr)	MSc(Agr)		MBA	Ph. D (Education)		
22+	XVI	MA/MSc/MCom/MSS/MBA				BSc Eng	BSc		MM	M Ed & M A(Edin)	MA(Ed. Sc)	Ka mi l
21+	XV		Masters (Prel)			BDS	BSc		B	B Ed & Dip Ed	BP ED	Dip (LSc)
20+	XIV					BSc aGR	Eng (Tech Edn)		A			
19+	XIII	Bachelor (Hons)	Bachelor (Pass)	LL.B(Hons)	Minimum M B H S	BSc Tech	BSc Lead					
18+												Fa zi l
16+												Al im
15+	X											
14+	IX											
13+	VIII											
12+	VII											
11+	VI											
10+	V											
9+	IV											
8+	III											
7+	II											
6+												
5+												
4+												
3+												
PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION												
PRIMARY EDUCATION												
JUNIOR SECONDARY EDUCATION												
SECONDARY EDUCATION												
SSC Examination												
ARTISAN COURSE e.g. CERAMICS												
Diploma in Engineering												
Diploma in Agriculture												
Diploma in Commerce												
Diploma in Nursing												

Figure 3: Source: BANBEIS: www.banbeies.org (internet)

Higher education system

'Higher education' refers to education at degree level and above. In the Bangladeshi Qualifications Framework, higher education courses are those leading to the award of a Bachelor's Degree, Graduate Certificate, Graduate Diploma, Master's Degree or Doctoral Degree. Some courses leading to the award of a Diploma or advanced Diploma may also be accredited as higher education (Alam, 2003). However, in Bangladesh, the term *higher education* is still controversial: this paper considers HE from diploma level and onwards (see: figure 3).

Almost all higher education in Bangladesh used to be offered by public universities/colleges. Now HE courses are also offered by a large number of accredited and non-accredited private providers. The following discussion is about HE management: due to the 'imprudent' expansion of private higher education, its management process is also responsible to some extent, and this will be critically analysed later.

Higher education management

'Intermediate colleges' are controlled by the seven BISEs (Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education) located in different regions under the Ministry of Education (MOE) (see: figure: 5). There is a separate education board for VET and 'Mdrasha' education under the MOE to control all levels of VET and Mdrasha institutions (BANBEIS, 2002) (see: figure 5). Graduate and postgraduate colleges/institutions are controlled by the National University of Bangladesh (NUB), which came into existence through an Act of Parliament in 1992, with a number of promises for functioning effectively ((NARIC, 2001 and BANBEIS, 2002). In partnership with NUB, a large number of private Higher Learning Institutions (HLI) offer education to local communities located in urban areas for 'commercial interest' (Alam, 2003)

Universities are so-called autonomous organisations, controlled jointly by the MOE and University Grants Commission – UGC (Alam, 2003) (see figure 4). By law, the Prime Minister or President of the country is the chancellor of all universities (UGC, 2001, MOE 2003). The vice-chancellor (VC) of a public university is politically selected from the faculty members, and the VC of a private university is from an 'entrepreneur body' or selected by the entrepreneur/ entrepreneurs (Private University Act 1992). Politically elected senate/governing body members also influence both public and private university

management. Colleges/institutions must have a governing body. If a local parliamentarian wishes to be the chairperson of a Governing Body (GB), he or she may legally do so, otherwise the local district commissioner (Government Official) is the chairperson of the GB. As a result, there is always a political atmosphere prevailing in the country's HE sector (Alam, 2003).

The political atmosphere can lead to severe administrative problems:

“Theoretically, the academic year runs from July to June at the higher education levels. However, given the internal political disturbances, university courses have become out of step with the official academic year” (NARIC, 2001, internet).

To address the situation, the NUB was established in 1992. Previously, three different universities controlled all of the graduate and postgraduate colleges/institutions, but as they also had a large number of their own students, the administrative pressure became too great (NUB, 2003 web page). Thus, the NUB was established to oversee the activities of the affiliated colleges/institutions.

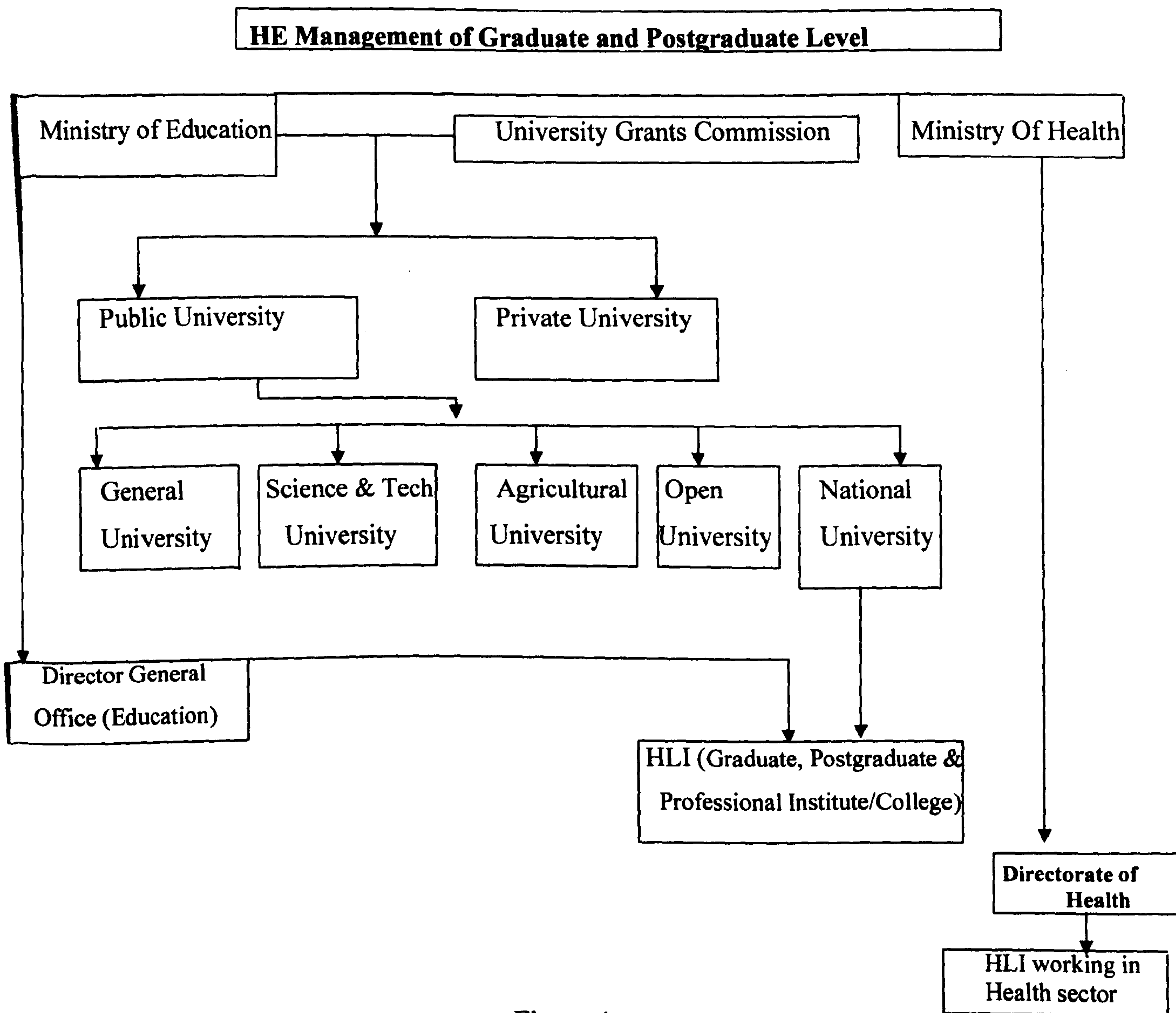


Figure 4

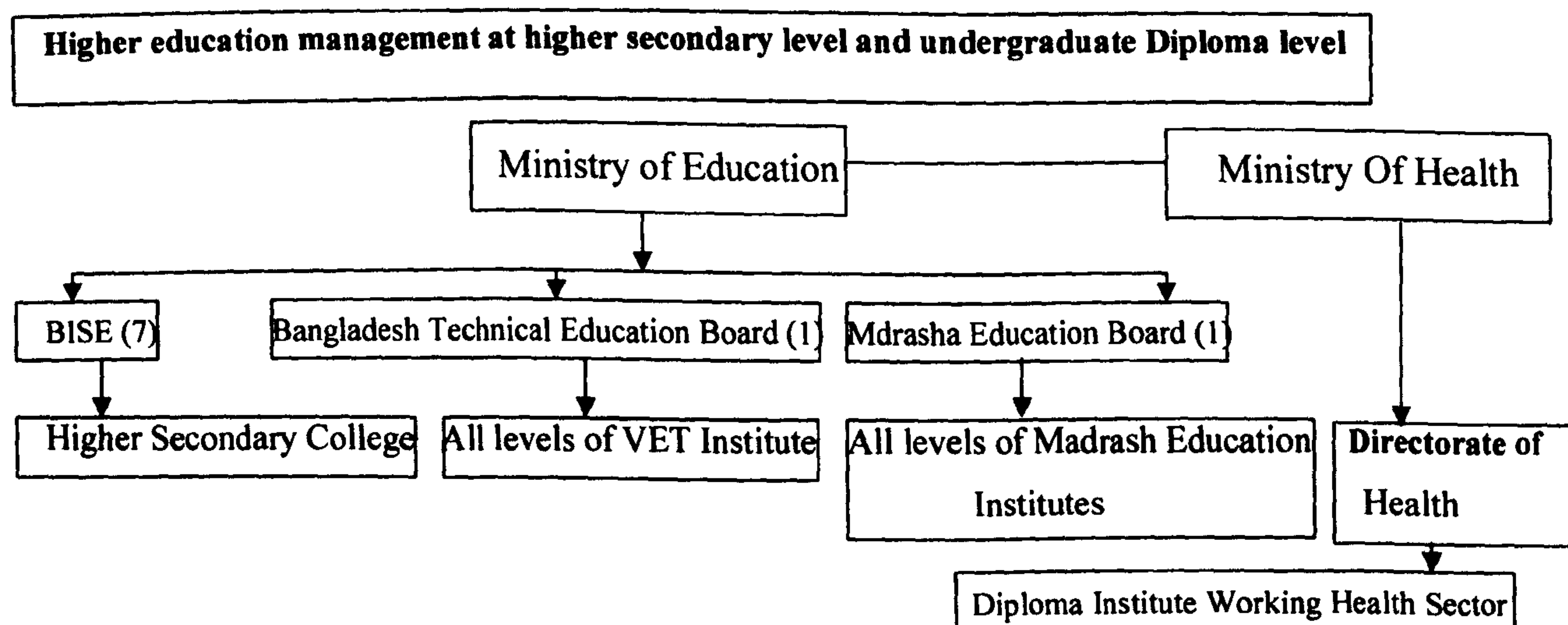


Figure 5

The findings and discussion section of this thesis will illuminate the Bangladeshi private HE context, focusing on some specific aspects. However, a brief explanation will help in understanding discussion within the preceding sections. In addition, it is important to be familiar with the country's context and the subject under investigation in order to justify the accuracy of the methods used for collecting the data (Robson, 2002).

Virtually no academic research has been conducted on private HE in Bangladesh. Apart from newspaper articles and two succinct academic papers (Altbach, *et al.*, 2004), two private University Acts are available as I have been conducting this research.

HE in Bengal is older than in Bangladesh. Dhaka University was established whilst Bengal was still under British rule. After the 'British chastisement', it came under Pakistani government and was named East Pakistan and, since its emergence in 1971, was seceding independence. The private provision of HE is observed in the three different administrative eras (i.e. British, Pakistan, and Bangladesh). In the period of British and Pakistani chastisement, up until 1991 (whilst under independent administration), the private sector was rather limited within semi-government provision. Self-financing private HE, (referred to in this paper as private HE), commenced in 1992 by a Parliamentary act – the Private University Act 1992.

Without explanation, and the absence of data presentation and hypothesis, the Private University Act of Bangladesh (1992) states that:

"Due to high demand of HE, there is a need to establish private universities to provide higher education for the local community".

At the same time, the NUB also provides affiliation to self-financing HE institutions to offer degree level programmes, especially in the field of Business Administration and Computer Science. On a smaller scale, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Textile, the Ministry of Labour and Manpower and the Ministry of Education also provide affiliation to self-financing institutions through their nominated agencies in

order to provide different degree programmes leading to Diploma and Bachelor level qualifications. In addition, there are a substantial number of foreign providers working in collaboration with local counterparts. However, a private university is an autonomous body, jointly controlled by the MOE and UGC. Institutions working in collaboration with the NUB are controlled by the NUB.

Institutions working in collaboration with an agency nominated by the Ministry are controlled by the agency, with guidance from the ministry designated. However, the Ministry of Education can interfere with any agency or ministry's activities while they provide education to the local community. It is interesting to note that there are no rules and legislations or controlling bodies for the operation of franchise provision.

Considering the above, the institutional type of private HE is divided into three parts, which will lead further arguments as follows, and in Chapter Four.

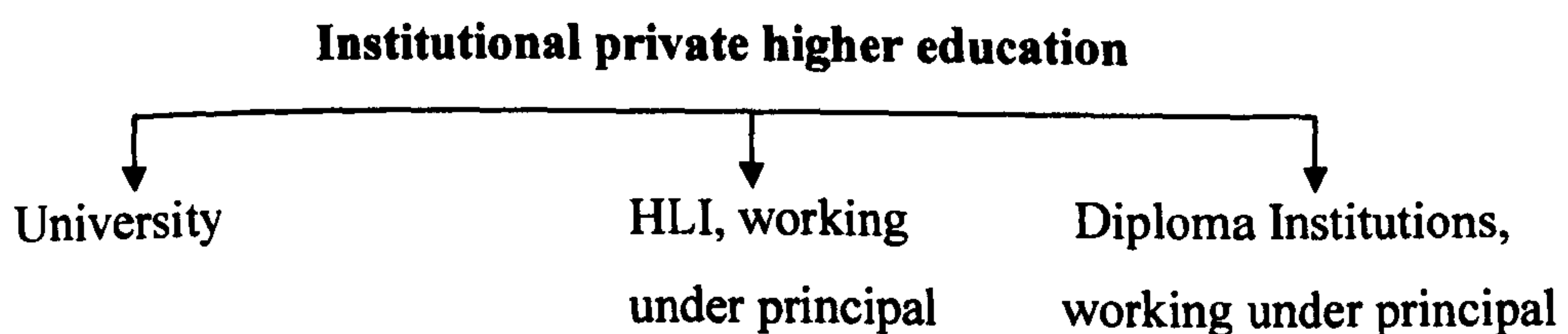


Figure 6

Before explaining the expansion of different types of private higher educational enterprises, it is important to know about the five phases of development of the private HE sector (especially the three main segments). This will help with the selection of different institutions of higher education for interviews and questionnaire samples in the methodology section.

Phase 1: From 1992 to March 1996 is Phase 1 (a main segment). This is the BNP government period. It is claimed that the BNP is primarily responsible for the massive increase of private HE university provision.

Phase 2: Considered as 31st March to 23rd June 1996. During this period, the country was governed by a caretaker government. Although the basic purpose of a caretaker government is to conduct a general election, they had to perform various policy

making decisions and deal with implementation issues as part of the regular administrative work.

Phase 3: From June 1996 to July 2001 (another main segment). This is the Bangladesh *Aouwami League* government period.

Phase 4: From 15th July to 10th October 2001. The country is once again governed by a caretaker government.

Phase 5: October 2001 to 2006 (latest/main segment). Phase 5 is again under a BNP government period.

Having explored the five phases of development of the private HE sector, the following discussion briefly examines the development of different types of private HE institutions (i.e. University, HLI, diploma institutions, franchise provider).

University

In total, fourteen universities were established in Phase 1: two in 1992, four in 1993, four in 1995 and four in 1996. Out of these fourteen universities, eleven are located in the *elite* areas of Dhaka; two are situated in Chittagong and have a Dhaka campus, and one is in Comilla. One university based in Dhaka has also recently established a small campus in Syllet. Many of the universities established in Phase 1 initially offered courses in Business Administration and Computer Science. However some have since extended their focus to include other programmes.

Two universities established in Phase 2 are located in Dhaka: one of them, the *Ghono Bishobidalo*y is managed by an NGO based in an industrial area. It mainly works in the field of pharmacy and medicine with two other common programmes, Business Administration and Computer Science.

Four universities established in Phase 3 are situated in the *elite* areas of Dhaka to provide higher education mainly in Business Administration and Computer Science, along with few other programmes.

One university established in Phase 4 is located in Syllet and offers a few subjects in the field of IT.

In total, thirty-three private universities were established in Phase 5 (sixteen in 2002, more than twelve in 2003). Out of the thirty-three, twenty-eight are located in Dhaka (most of them in *elite* areas); three are in Chittagong and two are in Sylhet.

It has been documented that the universities established during any of the five Phases have no particular diversity in their programme offerings. It is also evident that none of the universities has its own campus, with the exception of Ghono Bishobidalo. It is also noteworthy that the private universities are principally based in Dhaka and, to a lesser degree, in Chittagong and Sylhet.

The above-mentioned Bangladeshi private universities are approved by the local MOE and UGC. In addition, there are a few foreign universities also offering their degree programmes to local communities, especially in Dhaka, in collaboration with their local counterpart.

HLI

The *self-financing* institutions which offer education leading to Bachelor and Masters level qualifications are known locally as 'university level institutions'. According to the National University Act, Bangladeshi *self-financing* HLIs have to be affiliated with the National University of Bangladesh and be controlled and monitored by the NUB. Conversely, private HLIs working in the field of medicine are an exception. For instance, institutions working in the field of medicine are affiliated with, monitored and controlled by the Directorate of Health (a controlling body employed by the Ministry of Health). Before examining thoroughly, it is important to note that some of the semi-government HLIs mainly located in Dhaka are offering few newer subjects (i.e. Computer Science, Business Administration, Medicine) apart from their original²⁸ programmes, through self-financing stipulation. They operate these programmes through self-finance, as this is the only way these courses may be operated according to the law. Hence, semi-government institutions attain the benefit of the existing infra-structure, regular expenses are incurred by the government and thus comprehensive self-financing institutions struggle to compete with them. The expansion of private HLIs is briefly discussed below.

²⁸ 'Original' here means programmes offered since their establishment and before the induction of self-financing subjects.

NUB's HLI

It is documented that Phases 1 and 5 are the domain of development by private universities. On the other hand, documents show that both Phases 3 and 5 are the domain of development by private HLIs. It is publicly said that the favouritism of *Bangladesh Awami League* government in employing key personnel (i.e. VC, Pro-VC, Dean), along with massive political employment of support staff, resulted in weak leadership and brought a *polluted* political environment to the management of the NUB; and thus the situation introduced the *imprudent* expansion of private HLIs.

Data shows that the first private HLI was established in 1994 in Dhaka, offering a Bachelor degree in Computer Science, by way of an entrepreneurship with a BNP minister's family. No more institutions were established in Phase 1. In total, seventeen private HLIs were established in Phase 3 and, out of these, one was in 1996, one in 1997, four in 1999, three in 2001, and seven in 2002. Of these seventeen institutions, one is in Jessore, another is in Gazipur, and the rest are located in Dhaka. Most of them offer Bachelor (Hon) degrees in both Computer Science and Business Administration; however, a few of them exclusively offer a degree in Computer Science. In total, twenty four institutions were established in Phase 5: fifteen in 2002 and nine in 2003²⁹. Out of the institutions established, one is in Tangil, one in Bogura, two are in Khulna, two are in Chittagong and the rest are in Dhaka. Most of them offer both Computer Science and Business Administration degrees. However, a few of them exclusively offer either Computer Science or Business Administration. Most of the institutions offer Bachelor degrees, but some of the institutions established in earlier phases have permission to offer Masters degrees.

Seven semi-government colleges also offer degrees in Computer Science and Business Administration through self-financing regulation. These colleges were established before the inauguration of self-financing institutions, but three or four of them have commenced operations in the field of Computer Science and Business Administration, in Phases 3 and 5 respectively. Though there are a few franchised HLIs, no official data is available.

²⁹ Data for 2004 is not available. However, working with NUB, I am aware that some of the institutions have already collapsed.

HLI of Directorate of Health

In the year 2003³⁰ and under the Directorate of Health, 22 medical colleges and seven dental colleges were working. Most of them are located in Dhaka and the surrounding area. The first three private medical colleges³¹ were established in 1985, 1989 and 1990 respectively before the introduction of the first private university. Five private medical colleges were established in Phase 1, eleven in Phase 3, and three were set up in Phase 5.

In total, seven dental colleges have been established in Dhaka, most of them in the last period of Phase 3 and the early stage of Phase 5.

Diploma institution

The scope of studying postgraduate-level diploma education in Bangladesh is almost zero. Thus, diploma qualification is below the standard of Bachelor and slightly higher than, or of a similar standard to, HSC. For admission to a three or four year diploma education programme, the prerequisite qualification is SSC³². The private provision of diploma education is a recent but increasing phenomenon. Most of the diploma institutions are guided by the Bangladesh Technical Education Board (BTEB). Nevertheless, there are some *differentiated* diploma institutions which are guided by different agencies (e.g. Directorate of Health), under the supervision of the ministry designated.

There are a few unrecognised franchise diploma level institutions³³ (e.g. NITT, APTECH, HORIZON). Each of these has many branches which offer different levels of diploma qualifications (i.e. undergraduate, postgraduate, short courses, certificate programme), particularly in the fields of Computer Science, IT and E-commerce. There are also a few private professional institutions offering only postgraduate diplomas.

³⁰ Due to the unavailability of current data, here I used data until 2003.

³¹ Other medical colleges were established in Phases 1, 3 and 5.

³² Although SSC is a prerequisite for HSC and diploma education, HSC level institutions are excluded from my thesis.

³³ No accurate data is available.

No accurate data is available for unrecognised diploma institutions. Most of the diploma level institutions are working in collaboration with the BTEB, with the exception of institutions working in the health sector.

BTEB's Diploma institutions

The development of private diploma institution started in Phase 3, and is rapidly growing in Phase 5. In total, 63 private diploma institutions have been approved by the BTEB to work in the field of Engineering and Business between 1999 to 2004. There is more diversity in piloting the location of the diploma institutions. In the education years of 1999-2000, 2000-01, 2001-02, 2002-03 and 2003-04, respectively seven, thirteen, seven, twenty-nine and three institutions were established to provide education in Computing and Business. In addition, eleven private diploma institutions³⁴ located in regions other than Dhaka and established in the education year 1999-2000 are providing education in a wider range of courses/subjects in the field of Agricultural studies.

Diploma institutions of Directorate of Health

In total, twelve diploma level 'medical technology' institutions were established. Most of them are in Dhaka. Besides each district, namely Rajshai, Bogura and Chittagong, has one institution. In addition, five, four, two and one institutions were established respectively in 2003, 2002, 2001 and in 2000 in various parts of Bangladesh.

Conclusion of Country Context

It may be summarised that the massive and rapid expansion of the private HE sector is unquestionably a scenario of the unforeseen. No wonder some of these institutions of HE have already collapsed. Politicians and legislators are mainly responsible for the imprudent development of the private HE sector. Non-accountability in decision-making is exceedingly common in the corrupt Bangladeshi office management and political environment (Alam, 2003). When a decision or activity is appreciated, every organisation (whether ministry, agency or political party) likes to take the credit, but if

³⁴ It is interesting to note that some of the institutions (i.e. Micro-land, ISTT, Bhuyian Academy) are working with different principals (i.e. NUB, BTEB, Directorate of Health, and foreign providers) to offer different qualifications in different areas/levels leading to diploma or PhD. Some higher learning institutions/universities own schools or colleges for kindergarten to XII and cater for children from kindergarten to university, examples are Chaim family - Brazil, Educor - South Africa, etc.

anything goes wrong, they are not as keen to shoulder the responsibility (Kreitner 1999). For example, activities of the university are controlled jointly by the MOE and UGC, but when anything goes wrong, they blame each other. To be saved from criticism of a poor decision or activity, the MOE always argues that it has followed the recommendations made by the designated agency or politicians. On the other hand, agencies also try to vindicate themselves by demonstrating how they have followed the orders³⁵ of the ministry and higher officials or politicians.

In fact, some guardians are terrified that their children, with higher education, might be unemployed; yet they still prefer to send their children to pursue higher education, as they always wish for their children to have better prospects. In the meantime, a few HE institutions, mainly private ones, have collapsed due to the crisis of students, but admission to a better HE institution is rigidly competitive (see picture 1).

Government and educationalists are morally and legally obliged to bestow a timely education for the nation.



Picture 1

This picture shows an unbelievably long queue of applicants waiting to collect an application form for the admission test to a reputable HE institution in Dhaka. (Source: www.prothom-alo.com, 18th July, 2004.)

³⁵ Politicians and bureaucrats usually pass instructions to those employed in the agencies over the telephone, not an official procedure. However, people working in the agency follow the instructions in order to work without fear or to maintain good relations to get promotion or illegal benefits.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology and Methods

Introduction

In the discussion concerning research methods and methodology, the word 'epistemology' is characterised by a spirit of controversy. Critics always generate argument when discussing the epistemological foundation of a research. Epistemology is a philosophical word defined as the philosophical³⁶ theory of knowledge. Methodology and method can also be defined respectively as (1) the branch of philosophy that analyses the principles and procedures of an inquiry in a particular discipline, or the system of methods followed in a particular discipline, and (2) a way of working, adopting a systematic approach which implies an orderly logic (usually in stages). Therefore, in order to identify a methodological approach, it is important to know the epistemological foundation of the research.

Epistemological foundation for research

There are three main schools (Popper, Kuhn and Lakatos), which have produced the epistemological foundation adopted for research since the 1960s.

In this study, I concentrate and privilege the work of Lakatos as the main epistemological underpinning of my research. In the sections that follow, I describe the various schools and indicate what about their thinking inform my work.

To identify the epistemological foundation for scientific research, some researchers use Popper's (1965, 1968) '*falsificationist*' theory, which itself is a step away from logical positivism. This does not assert the fact that scientific theories are true, simply that the best available theories are those that (a) explain observation better than competing theories and (b) have yet to be falsified. A common example used by the '*falsificationist*' to illustrate falsifiability is the statement '*All swans are white*' – a single sighting of a black swan³⁷ is sufficient to falsify the statement. A question therefore arises: what kind of evidence would be considered sufficient to falsify the hypothesis? According to this, a statement or hypothesis can only claim to be

³⁶ Philosophy can be defined as the rational investigation of questions about existence, knowledge and ethics

³⁷ Some researchers argue that a single sighting of a black swan cannot falsify the statement. They argue that this might not be a swan but another kind of duck.

scientific if it is falsifiable; that is, if there is some form of empirical test capable of being performed which could prove the hypothesis wrong. Thus, the hypothesis stands until falsified.

After the challenge made by Kuhn and Lakatos against the falsificationist theory in 1970, most researchers (scientific, Social Science, Arts) use the idea of a *paradigm shift* in order to identify the epistemological foundation of a given research. Kuhn defines a paradigm as a particular exemplary scientific achievement that sets standards for practice, and canons for evidence within a particular field. An individual scientific fact, therefore, is not an entity within itself, but is given meaning and reality through its place within the complex web of meanings which forms the paradigm. A statement such as '*hydrogen is an odourless flammable gas*' presupposes a class of things which are defined as gases, conventions of odour and a definition of what 'flammable' means – that 'it combines with available oxygen from the earth's atmosphere, releasing energy, when ignited by a source of heat'. Of course, the definition of inflammability itself requires definitions of atmosphere, heat and ignition: and so on, almost ad infinitum.

Two types of paradigm shifts, *revolutionary* and *evolutionary*, are identified respectively by Kuhn and Lakatos. Kuhn described scientific revolutions as paradigm shifts – the defeat of an existing weaker paradigm by a more powerful and useful one. He saw this as a dramatic, revolutionary process, which drew attention to what can occur; however, a dominant paradigm must exist. Kuhn describes this as 'normal science'. He describes fields of endeavour, where there exists no single dominant paradigm but a variety of competing paradigms, as 'prescientific'. He also notes that in such a situation, scientific writing is much more difficult, since no common vocabulary (idea) of key concepts exist to be taken as basic principles. The writer argues that each of the new researchers must drive every concept required in the argument from the first principles and must even postulate such principles.

Whilst Lakatos' (1970) perspective differs in a number of important ways from that of Kuhn, Lakatos' research programmes are sufficiently similar to Kuhn's paradigms that, for the purposes of the current discussion, they can be treated together. Both are complex structures of internally consistent theories which may be superseded (in different ways) by better structures. The key difference is that Lakatos saw the history

of science as more evolutionary than revolutionary. He described research programmes as growing together in similar soil, but competing with one another for adherents and resources. Research programmes which cannot compete strongly begin to wither away, as researchers and research funding desert them: these are described as ‘degenerating programmes’. At the same time, other research programmes seem to be more useful and are explaining the world more clearly.

Researchers based in ‘pure science research’ consider epistemological foundations from the three schools stated (Popper, Kuhn and Lakatos). Literature shows that each of the schools is popular with different groups of adherents. In the following discussion, I will explore the epistemological foundation for my research in order to justify the accuracy of the methodology adopted in the study.

Table 5: Criteria of the three schools

	Popper	Kuhn	Lakatos
1	Statement or hypothesis is waiting to be falsified	Each statement or hypothesis is a result <i>paradigms shifts</i>	New statement is a result of degeneration
2	Statement or hypothesis is true until a new one, which has passed some form of empirical test, replaces it.	An individual scientific fact is not an entity unto itself	Statement, beliefs, knowledge, and cosmologies are not universally right or true; they can be useful, valid, and true for some societies, but may be useless, not valid and untrue for others
3	Research is conducted to falsify the statement or knowledge achieved from earlier research	Research is conducted to find a stronger paradigm to defeat the existing weaker one	Research is conducted to enrich previous research, through addition of a new and original piece of work

Various sources

The above talk explains three main criteria of each of the three schools. As noted earlier this thesis focuses on the work of Lakatos as the main underpinning.

Methodological approach

The texts of educational research emphasise the area of methodology and methods in the discussion of *research design*. Writers in *research design* for education, such as Bell (1999), Cohen, *et al.*, (2002), Hammsersley (2003), Delamont (2002), and Robson (2002) cover the following areas:

- *Researcher identity*
- *Planning for research*
- *Designing research instruments - interviews*
- *Designing research instruments - classroom observation*
- *Designing research instruments - questionnaire design*
- *Designing research instruments - participatory approaches*
- *Piloting of instruments*
- *Making sense of qualitative data*
- *Making sense of quantitative data*
- *Making sense of case study*
- *Ethical issues in educational research*

The philosophical theory of knowledge in educational research is widely discussed and debated when researchers gather in *colloquium*, but it is a neglected area in published materials. This refers to the lack of written materials which explore this issue thoroughly (Pring, 2000). However, a small contribution made by Pring (2000), Geelan (2002), Brown and Dowling (1998) includes some of the philosophical aspects in educational research. Essentially, they do not advocate any school when considering the epistemological foundation for educational research. The areas they investigated mainly include teaching systems and methodology, pedagogy, gender equity in classrooms, procedures in preparing curricula and syllabus, classroom management, examination and assessment and teaching methodology for science education.

Notably Geelan (2002, p5) defines education research as follows:

“Research in education can perhaps be understood as contributing to our understanding of the life in the classroom, not through adding a new piece to a predetermined, rule-bound jigsaw puzzle, but through adding a new wash of colour to a watercolour of an ever-changing scene.”

He believes that research in education investigates life in the classroom, and others (Pring, 2000 Brown and Dowling, 1998) believe that it explores and searches the existing problems in teaching methods, examinations and assessment, along with other contemporary issues in education, and, finally, provides some suggestions for solutions. Thus, research in policy and the management practice of education is ignored in the discussion of epistemological foundation. Besides, there is insufficient literature to elaborate on the issue thoroughly. Fortunately, Hammersley (2002) offers some contributions where he advocates Lakatos' *degenerating and progressive* programme has greater value to offer an epistemological foundation for research in educational policy. He suggests adopting the methodology for research in educational policy, when the researcher should emphasise regional circumstances and the nature of inquiry.

The literature review shows that this project investigates a controversial issue, where no ideology can be taken as postulate. Many of the researchers in this field have designed their research technique with no hard and fast rules, but have emphasised regional circumstances and overall situations. For instance, Amaral and Texeira's (2000) study in Portuguese, Banya's (2001) sub-Saharan study, Mabizela, Thaver and Subotzky's (2000) study in sub-Saharan regions, and Lassibille and Tan's (1999) study in Tanzania adopted a method of document reviews by qualitative approach only. On the other hand, Altbach (1999), Mabizela's South African study, Oketch's (2004) Kenyan study, and Sayed and Rose's (2002) study in South Africa only analyse the previous literature available. Dieltiens' (2002) study collected data through interviews and literature that emphasised the issues of culture, politics and, to some degree, corruptions, concerned with the sub-Saharan region in the discussion of his policy research into private HE.

Discussions in the previous section showed there are no dominant paradigms that are absolute at all times. Instead, researchers need to decide which paradigms have most to offer in relation to their research. The literature review also shows that there are some strong conflicting arguments regarding the growth and governance processes of private HE. Consequently, in such circumstances, it is important for the researcher

to justify an appropriate methodological approach and their standpoint for the hypothesis.

Before focusing on a specific epistemological perspective which has much to offer in the supporting enrichment of my research, it is important to note that I do not mean to suggest a model from the philosophy of science, intend principally to describe the purpose of social science research. Nor am I advocating a simple shift of allegiance from one philosopher of science, for instance Popper, to another, Lakatos. Instead I am using these perspectives from the philosophy of science as *analogies and metaphors*. Though an epistemological foundation discussed in the school of thought of the philosophy of science could not be a complete *analogy* for my research, the intention of the following discussion is to discover a better way of understanding, that I can then consider for the theoretical underpinnings of this study.

Pring (2000) did not produce any school of thought applicable to the selection of an epistemological foundation for research in education, but he challenges that no schools of thought describing as an epistemological foundation of scientific research is relevant to use in educational research.

“Present thoughts shape future reactions; future understandings to some degree are adaptations or reconstructions of previous ones. Therefore, it is concluded that scientific modelling is simply not appropriate for understanding physical reality and the sort of enquiry for understanding the mental life of individuals. Man is not a subject of science” (Pring, 2000, p32).

Popper's ideology is widely considered by scientists researching in the field of 'pure science'. Advances in educational research are hindered because there is a lack of commitment between educational researchers to overcome their differences. In scientific research, a consensus between researchers has enabled research in science and in technology to advance sufficiently to confront the challenges of the 21st century. The field of educational research is beset by alternative descriptions, competing orientations and incompatible perspectives in an attempt to find the truth. Strong opposition of Pring (2000) guides me to refuse Popper's perspective for my study. As claimed by Popper, research is conducted to falsify the knowledge achieved

from earlier research (see: table 5). No research has been conducted in the field of private education, let alone private education, in Bangladesh: although some international research has been conducted in policy research of private HE, essentially none focus on the area of governance and regulatory approaches. Thus, the purpose of my study is not to falsify the statements given by earlier researchers. In addition, as claimed by Hammersley (2002), recommendations of policy research in education are guided by cultural and political issues. The accuracy of new policies supported by the researcher depends on the style of implementation, which is directed politically, regionally and culturally; thus, Popper's theory of falsification is not pertinent to my study.

Each of the perspectives (Kuhn and Lakatos) discussed in the previous section has value in a number of ways when thinking about my approach for conducting this research. Both quantitative and qualitative research programmes in education are growing and thriving, and it seems unlikely that there will be a complete scientific revolution in which allegiance switches completely from one paradigm or the other, and, in my opinion, neither should there be (Fink and Kosecoff, 1988). Instead, a methodology is chosen for a particular purpose, based on particular sets of values and epistemological commitments, and is then used in a particular context. Therefore, in terms of the paradigm war (Geelan, 2002), Lakatos' scheme of a '*degenerating and progressive*' research programme is more powerful than Kuhn's more 'revolutionary' approach in the description of the theory of change.

Perhaps the most powerful description amongst these perspectives in the philosophy of science is Kuhn's notion of a pre-scientific community, one in which there exists no single over-arching paradigm (of Stenhouse's [1986] CAP type) but a variety of competing perspectives and approaches. I would argue that this applies very well in the field of my research, as the practice of knowledge is a continuous process. Researchers conduct research to justify their knowledge or to acquire the answer to queries. Even though the methodology used and the findings achieved seem initially credible, they can be falsified, perhaps by the researcher, or by further research by other researchers. Each research, however, illuminates new scenarios which initiate further research.

In conclusion then, I should emphasise that the purpose of my study is neither to falsify other studies nor to produce a new paradigm in order to defeat the existing ones (see: table 5). My intention in conducting this study is simply to produce an original piece of work in the field of policy and governance of private HE, through my personal engagement and knowledge in gathering ideas from others studies. Thus Lakatos' idea, that research is conducted to enrich the knowledge of earlier research through the addition of a new and original piece of work, has much value to offer in supporting my research.

Bell (1999) also believes that there are no hard and fast methods and processes which the researcher must follow. Moreover, Cohen, *et al.*. (2002) and Kane (1995) emphasise that from a number of research designs, the researcher needs to identify the best design by which research questions can be answered. As mentioned earlier, no research has been conducted in this field in Bangladesh. In addition, (also stated earlier), some international studies focusing on sub-Saharan Africa are based mainly on documents review and analysis of previous available literature. Only Tan (2002) conducted fieldwork for her study in Malaysia, where she adopted two methods: (1) documents review, and (2) interviews (qualitative approach). These opportunities do not offer me sufficient lessons from previous studies for the adaptation of methodology for my fieldwork, since the opportunities to critically review the *ambiguity, weaknesses and strengths* of the methodology used in others' studies are rather limited (Bell 1999).

Sherman and Webb (1988, p4) point out that:

"Qualitative research is interested in the motives and aims, not just the behaviour of those studied."

Therefore:

"The aim of qualitative research is not verification of a predetermined idea, but discovery that leads to new insights. Thus qualitative focus on natural settings (ibid p5)."

Bryman (2001, p264) also defined qualitative research as:

A research strategy that usually emphasises words rather than quantification in collection and analysis of data."

Bryman's definition implies that the purpose of quantitative research is to collect more opinions of respondents. I needed more respondents' views, especially for two research queries. They are (1) who are the target student population for private HE sector? (2) Who are the teachers of private HE sector?

Other research questions mainly demand the *discovery of the leads to new insight* (see: table 6).

Bell (1999, p37) generates a point worthy of consideration:

"No researcher can demand access to an institution, organisation or materials. People will be doing a favour if they agree to help."

This implies that researchers may face limitations. Keeping the probable limitation in mind, and being a researcher with work experience in educational management who adheres to the theory of *pluralistic methods*, and also thinks of fixed paradigms, research programmes, and sets of standards of justification of knowledge as an epistemology *anarchy*, which are incapable of producing scientific revolutions and of producing genuinely new knowledge (Creswell, 2003).

"Different approaches are used to answer different questions. That, of course, make sense where that which is being researched into, namely, educational practice, is a complex phenomenon. Different sorts of questions require different sorts of research. Researchers must be eclectic in their search for the truth" (Pring, 2000, p33)

I was also aware of my own cultural baggage and issues of objectivity. Thus, varying reasons led me to decide a research method for policy and management practice research in private HE which is a combination of qualitative (interview samples) and empirical survey (provision of questionnaires) in the collection of my data (ibid).

Research techniques

As suggested by Usher (1996), Fowler (2002) and Smith (1999), to investigate the entire sector thoroughly, the methods of data collection needed were both qualitative and empirical data survey. I chose qualitative methods for the people who were interviewed, thus allowing them to express their views in a free and personal way, giving as much prominence as possible to their thematic associations (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, Bogdan and Biklen, 1992). Hence, I chose to use semi-structured interviews. Another method of data collection I adopted was an empirical data survey (quantative) approach, using questionnaires. Empirical data survey approach for questionnaires was considered for the people who were easily accessible, as it would be more inclusive of peoples' views (especially students') of the issues – it is important to understand the common scenarios of the whole sector (Delamont, 2002). It also provides an excellent opportunity to ask relevant questions, especially to policymakers, legislators and stakeholders (Hammersley, 2002) in their interview season. Non-participatory observation is also considered an important tool. This research reviewed a number of official (published) and non-published documents and newspaper articles.

Semi-structured interview by qualitative approach, to include interviews with:

- *Key people at the Ministry of Education (Bangladesh)*
- *Key people at the University Grants Commission (Bangladesh)*
- *Key people of the NUB*
- *Key people of the BTEB*
- *Key persons in the public and private HE universities/institutions*
- *Lecturers (public/private HE universities/institutions)*
- *Support staff of public/private HE universities/institutions*
- *Social elites known as reputed educators*
- *Guardians of the students studying in both public and private HE institutions*
- *Students (studying in public/private HE universities/institutions)*

Questionnaires

- *For randomly selected lecturers (public/private HE universities/institutions)*
- *For randomly selected staff of private HE universities/institutions*
- *For randomly selected students (public/private HE universities/institutions)*

- *For randomly selected students facing various admissions tests to public/private HE universities/institutions*

Document reviews

- *Education Reforms Commission Report, 2002*
- *Private University Act 2004 (a newly proposed act by the University Grants Commission, which aims to be discussed in Parliament 2005-06)*
- *A draft of Asaduzzam Commission Report (this commission made some recommendations to the Prime Minister concerning private universities and their effective function)*
- *Private University Act 1992 (First Act)*
- *Private University Act 1998 (Revised Act)*
- *Public University Acts (i.e. Dhaka University, Khulna University)*
- *Portfolios and prospectuses of private universities/institutions*
- *Statutes of varying private universities/institutions*
- *Organisational structure of private universities/institutions*
- *National University Acts 1990*
- *NUB's rules and regulations of affiliated institutions*
- *BTEB's rules and regulations of affiliated institutions*
- *Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics – BANBIES' annual statistics book from 1990 to 2004 (organisation sponsored by UNESCO and run by the Ministry of Education [Bangladesh])*
- *Annual Report made by the University Grants Commission from 1994 to 2003 (containing the particulars of every university, either public or private, and general information of Bangladeshi universities, such as new development, proposed strategies, etc.)*
- *Students' result sheets of public and private HE universities/institutions*
- *Newspaper articles*

Observation

Lectures and other facilities (e.g. laboratories, libraries) were observed both in public and private HE universities/institutions

The answers to each individual research question demand '*individualism and differentiation*' in the sources of data collection (Bell, 1999). Fourteen research questions have been considered for this project; in order to have the appropriate findings of each research question outlined, an '*individualism and differentiation*' approach was taken into consideration (see: Table 6 and Appendix B).

Table 6

Nature of enquiry	Data Sources	Approach	Auxiliary data sources	Approach
Proposition in expansion of private higher education	Review of documents; review of education data and statistics	Qualitative	Interviews with policy-makers, entrepreneurs of private HE sector	Qualitative
Decision-makers of private HE sector	Private University Act (1992, 1998), portfolio of private universities/institutions, statutes of various private universities/institutions, observation of organisational structure of private universities and institutions	Qualitative	Interviews with entrepreneurs, key people, teachers and support staff at private universities/institutions	Qualitative
Motivation for establishing private higher educational enterprise	Interviews with key people, teachers and support staff at private universities/institutions	Qualitative	Analysis of promotional materials of private universities/institutions	Qualitative
Target student population for private HE sector	Questionnaire for students of public and private universities/institutions, questionnaire for students facing admission test for public/private universities/institutions	Quantitative	Questionnaire for teachers at public and private universities/institutions; questionnaire for support staff at private universities/ institutions	Quantitative
Identifying the teachers in the private HE sector	Questionnaire for teachers at public and private universities/institutions; questionnaire for support staff at private universities/institutions. Questionnaire for students at public and private universities/ institutions.	Quantitative	Interviews with teachers and students at public and private universities/institutions	Qualitative
Education programmes offered by private HE sector	Brochure and promotional materials including web-commercials of private universities/institutions	Qualitative/ Quantitative	Interviews with entrepreneurs, key people, teachers, support staff and students at private universities/institutions	Qualitative
Rationale in offering particular types of programme	Analytical discussion of findings from previous query		Interviews with entrepreneurs, key people, teachers, support staff and students of private universities/institutions	Qualitative
Design of courses and curricula	Interviews with entrepreneurs, key people, teachers, support staff at private universities/institutions	Qualitative	Questionnaire for students at private universities/institutions	Quantitative
Quality of courses and curricula	Analytical discussion of findings from previous query		Interviews with entrepreneurs, key people, teachers, support staff and students of private universities/institutions, universities/institutions,	Qualitative

Advantages of private HE	Findings from previous enquiries will enable analysis of this issue		Interviews with entrepreneurs, key people, teachers, support staff and students of private universities/institutions. Interviews with key people, teachers and students of public HE sector. Interviews with student guardians	Qualitative
Disadvantages of private HE	Findings from previous enquiries will enable analysis of this issue		Interviews with entrepreneurs, key people, teachers, support staff and students of private universities/institutions. Interviews with key people, teachers and students of public HE sector. Interviews with student guardians	Qualitative
Set up of present governance and regulatory system	Document analysis	Qualitative	Interviews with policy-makers of Bangladeshi Higher Education, entrepreneurs of private universities/institutions	Qualitative
Future challenges for private HE sector's governance and regulatory control	Analytical discussion of the findings of previous query		Interviews with policy-makers of Bangladeshi Higher Education, entrepreneurs of private universities/institutions	Qualitative
Strategy for facing governance and regulatory challenges	Presentation of recommendations by the researcher		Interviews with policy-makers of Bangladeshi higher education, entrepreneurs of private universities/institutions	Qualitative
How can the private HE sector play a constructive role in national development?	Answer to concluding research question is drawn from critical analysis of all earlier findings and discussions			

Data collection phase and data analysis

Before examining my findings, I will seek to demonstrate the significance of the data I collected by analysing it. Methods of data analysis will be explained below.

"The basic skills required of the researcher to analyse...qualitative or symbolic material involve collecting, classifying, ordering, synthesising, evaluating and interpreting. At the basis of all these acts lies sound professional judgement." (Cohen and Manion, 1997, p 55)

This statement adequately describes my work processes during the analytic stage of the findings. The period of my research fieldwork was October 2004 to February 2005, and it was divided into five phases. The data, collected through five phases, was of four types: documents, questionnaires, observations and interviews. The following report chronologically communicates methods and categories of data collected at each phase, alongside the data analysis.

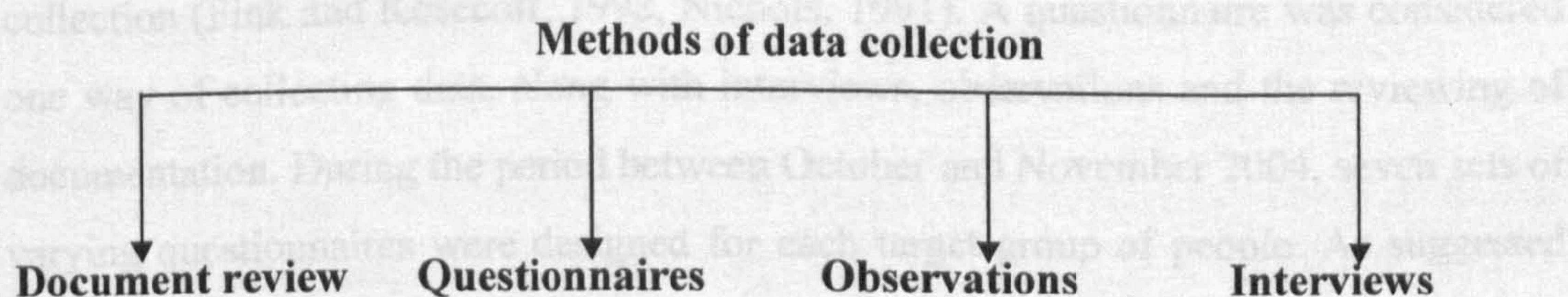


Figure 7

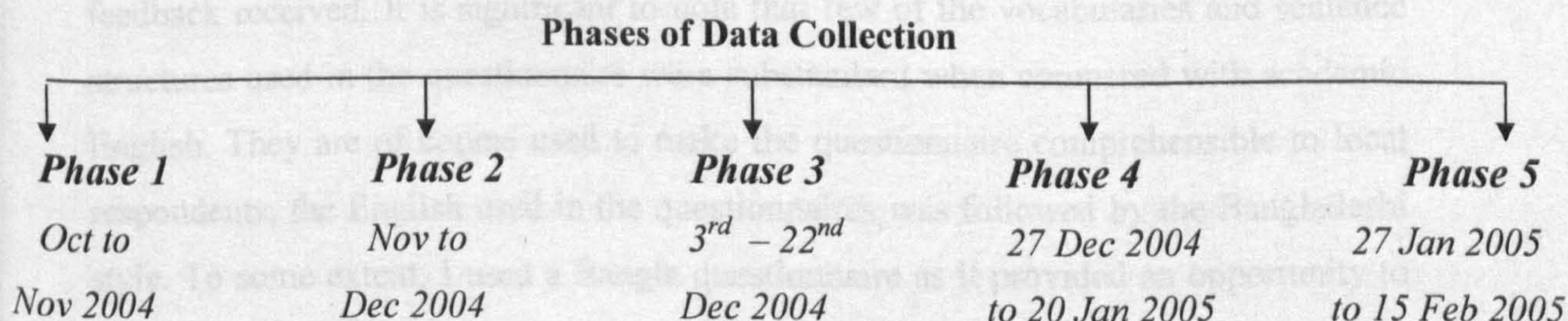


Figure 8

Table 7: Time schedule of field research

<i>Phase</i>	<i>Length</i>	<i>Activities</i>
1	Oct. to Nov. 04	Preparation of research tools; document collection
2	Nov. to Dec. 04	Questionnaire season and observations
3	December 04	Interviews with students
4	Dec. 04 to Jan. 05	Interviews with lecturers and support staff of public and private HE sectors; interviews with the guardians of some students
5	Jan. to Feb. 05	Interviews with policy-makers and key people of private universities and institutions

Phase 1

October to November 2004 was the preparation period for the research fieldwork and for documentation collection. As mentioned earlier, triangulation of data is important in terms of my research. Thus, I considered a *pluralistic method* of data collection (Fink and Kosecoff, 1998, Nichols, 1991). A questionnaire was considered one way of collecting data, along with interviews, observations and the reviewing of documentation. During the period between October and November 2004, seven sets of varying questionnaires were designed for each target group of people. As suggested by Kane (1995), administration of a questionnaire requires pre-testing, so this was accomplished with a few fellow research students. Following the pre-testing, some of the words and sentence structure of the questionnaire were altered, according to the feedback received. It is significant to note that few of the vocabularies and sentence structures used in the questionnaire were substandard when compared with academic English. They are of course used to make the questionnaire comprehensible to local respondents; the English used in the questionnaires was followed by the Bangladeshi style. To some extent, I used a Bangla questionnaire as it provided an opportunity to express respondents' views accurately. In addition, newspaper articles about education (especially private HE) were read and collected. Commercials published and circulated by the private HE sector were also critically viewed as preparation. This information provided me with 'food for thought' for the design of the questionnaires. I prepared each set of questionnaire in both Bengali and English. Whilst I was in the process of giving out questionnaires to the respondents, the UGC

made a recommendation to the Prime Minister to close some of the private universities, and local newspapers were publishing articles about the issue. Some of the journalists were accepting bribes from private universities. It is very important to note that the commission was politically biased. Thus, the majority of people concerned were involved in irregularities (e.g. people who work in the commission, journalists who took bribes from the private universities). In this situation, prudence was required, as the private HE sector was in a threatened position. A few of the universities holding positive assessments from the Commission were happy to provide the questionnaire to respondents (i.e. students, teachers, support staff), but those holding negative evaluations were reluctant. These circumstances also made the heads of private universities suspicious of my role in conducting this research. Some of them suspected me of being a spy of their opponents.

Document Review

A review of documents provided me with an excellent opportunity to get a first hand idea about the overall circumstances (the facilities provided and courses offered by the private HE sector) (Bell, 1993, Kane, 1997, Cohen, *et al.*, 2002). As suggested by Cohen, *et al.*, (2002), collection of documents requires a level of understanding of the designated people. Therefore, I began a regular email correspondence with the respondents and institutions sampled in order to build up a small amount of understanding whilst I was in the first year of my PhD programme. As advocated by Cohen, *et al.*, (2002), a document review helped me prepare questionnaires for each group with different semi-structured questions for the different respondents targeted for interviewing (see Phases 2 and 3).

Phase 2

Phase 2 was from November to December 2004, as this was considered the most appropriate period to conduct the '*questionnaire season*'. Students facing an admission test in order to be admitted to the universities/institutions were one of the many respondent groups targeted. Most of the universities, especially the public ones, distribute their admission forms during the months of November and December, so those two months seemed the most appropriate in which to meet the students. As suggested by Pratt and Loizos (1992), basic ideas and primary data are important in order to conduct a significant '*interview season*', so I decided to collect some first

hand data from the '*questionnaire season*' (Bell, 1999). Without having complete knowledge in this particular aspect, it was unlikely to ask relevant questions whilst interviewing the respondents. I therefore decided to collect more documents (collection of which was not possible during the Phase 1 document collection), to review in order to conduct a *consequential* '*interview season*' (Pratt and Loizos, 1992). It is imperative to note that the questionnaire was considered in quantitative method. Questionnaires were structured by monitoring a number of sensitive aspects (i.e. wording, memory, knowledge, double questions, leading questions, assumptive questions). Questionnaires carried an introductory section in which the purpose of the research, confidentiality issues and thanks were given to the respondents. After an epigrammatic analysis of data collected by questionnaires, interviews seasons were conducted during Phase 3. The questionnaires helped me understand the views given by the respondents, and this knowledge helped me to conduct good interview seasons. An analysis of each set of questionnaires follows.

Questionnaire for private HE Students

Each questionnaire for this target group was accompanied by an introductory letter, signed by the researcher, thanking the respondents. The letter clearly stated the purpose of the research and assured the respondents about the issue of confidentiality. When providing the questionnaire for the first time, I noticed that the letter was not clear enough to receive real data, as I found that students were suggesting to their peers not to provide any data which may lose their own or their institutions' reputation. I therefore decided to have a 'group talk' with the students, and, as I gave them the questionnaire (Lather 1986), I informed them personally that any data received would be used exclusively for my research. I told the respondents that the return of their data would be much appreciated, even though specific details of identity were withheld. In addition, all respondents were provided with an envelope in which to return the data. To ensure higher confidentiality, they could either hand the envelope to me, or alternatively put it into a box provided in their university Public Relations office. Some of the respondents, who were happy to post the questionnaire without stating their name and address, were provided with a pre-paid envelope. Most students returned the questionnaire via the box in the Public Relations office in their university in the envelope provided. Following this, I found that many of the respondents did not provide their real name and other information (e.g. age, address,

the university where they were studying). I noted that the data provided was different from the data received prior to the group talk. I thus decided not to take the data without having a 'group talk'. Notably out of the one hundred and fifty questionnaires provided to students of various private universities/institutions, about one hundred and ten were returned.

Questionnaire for the public HE Students

Steps taken for students studying at the public universities/institutions were the same as those taken earlier for private HE students. In total, sixty questionnaires were provided to the students of public HE sector; forty-seven were returned. It is significant to note that, generally, students in Bangladeshi HE, especially in the public universities (to some extent, excellent students), were enthusiastic to be respondents and wanted to share their ideas – the questionnaire therefore provided space to give them the opportunity for free-hand writing which might prove relevant to the research.

Questionnaire for students facing admissions test in both public and private HE sector

I must stress that two different questionnaires were provided for the two separate units (public and private). Steps taken were similar to those followed earlier, with one exception. As these students were not attached to any particular university/institution, they were unable to hand in the questionnaire in to any department or office of a university/institution. In addition, they were relatively busy preparing for the admissions test. I therefore decided to prepare them a short list of questions. Fifty questionnaires were supplied to students of each unit when I met them in the examination centre; most of them were returned at the same time.

Questionnaire for academic and support staff within private and public sectors

Steps at this stage were similar to those taken earlier. Some exceptions were considered because of the time constraints the respondents were under, so the questionnaire was shorter, with more multiple-choice questions. The issue of their expertise was considered. In Bangladeshi culture, people who work in a university, especially in an academic position, are viewed as experts in every issue, so they sometimes require space to expand on their ideas. Furthermore, I believed that it would be appealing to consider more detail. In order to do so, I allocated some extra space. [It is interesting to note that one of the lecturers at a reputed private university

gave me an essay that was eleven pages long.] Fifty respondents of each of the target groups were provided with the questionnaire, and most of them were returned by post. It is noted that there was no 'group talk' with these respondents.

In conclusion to Phases 1 and 2, I intend to comment on the recommendations regarding private universities made by the UGC. This made my job more difficult, as the authorities of universities with negative assessments were initially not interested in allowing access to their students, staff and teachers, but their comments were required to make the research meaningful. Fortunately, in establishing my intention by talking to me and viewing my academic documents, they were eventually persuaded to allow me access to the facilities required. Indeed, to some extent, I also contacted the respondents at their homes or in public places (e.g. cafeteria, book fair, software fair).

Since the data collection approach of the questionnaire season is quantitative, a software programme entitled '*Data warehouse and report of questionnaires*' was created in order to store all data collected. This provided the report of each question with a pie chart (see: CD attached).

Interview

The period of Phases 3 to 5 was the *interview season*. Before discussing the *Phase to Phase interview season*, let me put forward some general issues concerning each of the interviews conducted. Interviews conducted mainly in Bengali were the prime method of data collection, and provided clear answers to my research questions. I briefly examined interview techniques used with a view to eliciting valid and reliable answers, along with the accompanying questionnaire, to work as a 'demonstrator' (Bell, 1997, Cohen, *et al.*, 2002). Data collection through interview was qualitative. All interviews were semi-structured, but the merit of each question was stipulated according to the respondent sampled. I always tried to sample my interview respondents from a different '*position of domination*'. I considered both people holding more responsible positions (i.e. committee member, coordinator, director) and less responsible positions.

First, let me explain the reason for choosing the semi-structured interview. As suggested by Cohen, *et al.*, (2002), Kane (1997), and Bell (1993), before conducting final interviews with the respondents, the researcher first needs to conduct trial interviews with colleagues. I conducted trial interviews with my colleagues and

friends, and discovered I needed to ask further questions, so I decided upon the semi-structured interview technique.

The interviews were conducted coherently at Phases 3 to 5 (see: Phases 3, 4 and 5). The review of the documentation collected, along with the questionnaire season, provided me with significant ideas in preparing semi-structured interviews for different target groups. Collection of data in different phases provided me with an opportunity to cross-examine the data acquired. Phase 5, the final period of data collection, included interviews, especially with key people at different 'controlling agencies' designated (i.e. Ministry of Education, UGC, NUB, BTEB) and private HE universities/institutions. Interviews with key people were considered in the final phase, as an epigrammatic analysis of data collected during earlier phases helped to re-examine data collected, and to obtain pragmatic suggestions on how the private HE sector can face challenges particularly in governance and regulatory control.

Before beginning the formal conversations, I took time to explain my research title and the purpose of the research to give an instant idea of my research focus. (I had already sent some of the respondents my research proposal with its title, aim, and research questions). I also reassured them of the confidentiality of their replies (Bell, 1993, Cohen, *et al.*, 2002). Keeping the research questions in mind, I asked several indirect questions, and the respondent's answers led me to ask further questions, particularly in justifying the areas of advantages and disadvantages, as well as governance challenges, within the private HE sector.

I asked all respondents during the final stage of our conversations if they were able to tell me anything more, not already covered, but which they thought might benefit my research. The sequence of the interview questions was altered at the mid points of interviews to allow a normal conversation to take place, a strategy advised by Bell (1993). After each interview, I took care to thank the participants and to provide them with feedback that would generally either be positive or constructively critical. It was not my intention or desire to leave the respondent feeling in any way humiliated, alienated or insecure (Cohen, *et al.*, 2002, p59). However, as suggested by Cohen, *et al.* (2002), before starting a formal conversation, but after my introductory statements, I sought permission to use a tape recorder. Most of the respondents who held key positions, and legislators, denied my request. All expressed concern about

the issue of confidentiality. I reassured them about this, in some cases showing them the subsection of the chapter on 'Methodological Approach' in my earlier research (the subsection in question covered confidentiality and coding of the interview sample). They were satisfied and re-assured to see this, and in consideration of my strong commitment to the issue, I was permitted to record the conversation in most cases. I proceeded to transcribe them (which is in itself an interpretive practice, Riessman, 1993), and then I listened to and read them many times. Careful listening and reading played a significant role in examining findings.

Phase 3

Phase 3 was between 3rd and 22nd December 2004. During this phase, I interviewed students at private or public universities and institutions. In-depth interviews were conducted with seventeen students studying in the private HE sector and eleven in the public HE sector. Each interview of this phase lasted between twenty and thirty minutes. I conducted these interviews first because I wanted to know what the students' own experiences were before I interviewed academics, entrepreneurs of private universities/institutions or legislators (Muhall and Taylor, 1998, Hammersley, 2002). Having some knowledge of the problems and difficulties experienced by students would lead me to ask relevant questions, and suggestions might result from the discussion that may help to solve the problems and difficulties within the existing system.

Phase 4

The duration of Phase 4 was from 27th December 2004 to 20th January 2005. During this period, I interviewed teaching and support staff at private universities. In addition, I interviewed a few academics from public universities. A few guardians of students studying in both private and public universities were also interviewed.

Thirteen full time academics at private universities/institutions were interviewed. It is important to note that full time academics of private universities are not allowed to work with other organisations. In selecting respondents, I was aware of the '*domination of position*' so I considered both kinds of faculties (i.e. holding powerful positions such as course director or coordinator, as well as less powerful positions).

Twelve support staff working within the private HE sector were interviewed. In the selection of the respondents, '*domination of position*' was considered, since my

experiences in conducting research show that sampling respondents from different power dominations generates 'cross-examined' data which provides an excellent weight for research.

Nine academics working with public universities were interviewed. They were from full time faculties of the public universities, although most of them also taught at different private universities/institutions. In addition, two full time public university academics, now working with private universities in full time positions (and enjoying partially paid holidays for three years from the public university) were interviewed.

Just five guardians were interviewed. Three of them were sponsoring students at private universities, the other two sponsoring students at public universities. Each interview of this phase lasted about one hour.

Phase 5

The duration of this phase was from 27th January to 15th February 2005. I considered that this period would be appropriate to interview the people who are legislators, entrepreneurs of the private universities/institutions, or key people (i.e. VC, Registrar) as I had obtained other necessary data. However, it was very difficult to get their time and I was continually rescheduling my diary. Fortunately, I interviewed six VCs and two registrars working with private universities. I also interviewed five people working as directors of private HLIs, franchise providers or diploma institutions. I did not manage to speak with any VC working with a public university, but two registrars working with public universities were happy to exchange their ideas with me. I was keen to interview people working in the controlling agencies (UGC, MOE, NUB, BTEB) as their role is important in ensuring an epoch-making and transparent governance and regulatory system. The following people from the management agencies kindly provided their time:

MOE: I spoke with the State Minister of Education. In addition, I interviewed two officers working in the Ministry, one of them an assistant secretary responsible for dealing with private university affairs, the other a deputy secretary.

UGC: I interviewed the UGC chairman. I also interviewed six UGC officers. Of the six, three were working in the Private University Division, the rest in two other divisions: Research & Publications, and Administration. The respondents were

sampled equally from assistant and deputy directors. I attempted to interview the secretary of UGC but he was unavailable to talk. However, I spoke with one former UGC secretary, presently working as the registrar at a private university.

NUB: I interviewed two people from the NUB; one of them a section officer and the other Dean of Studies. Unfortunately, the VC of NUB was not prepared to discuss the issue, although his role is very important for the private affiliates of NUB. I spoke twice informally with the pro-vice chancellor of the NUB, and we shared some general discussions about the issue. It is interesting to note that I interviewed one former VC of the NUB who is presently working within a private university.

BTEB: I informally spoke with the chairman of BTEB. I also interviewed three members of BTEB staff. All of them were section officers working in different areas: Administration, Affiliation and Registration.

Observation

Silverman (1985, p15-16) argued that:

“The advantages of observational research are that it is able to produce descriptions and explanations appropriate to the way in which people actually behave.”

Robson (2002, 1991) believes that:

“A major advantage of observation is its directness. You do not ask people about their views, feelings and attitudes; you watch what they do and listen to what they say.”

However, he also states that:

“Observation is not an easy access to trouble-free opinion, as there is a major issue concerning the extent to which an observer affects the situations under observation” (p 191).

I completed my observations in Phases 1, 2 and 3. I needed the data collected from the observations completed in Phases 1 and 2 in order to conduct interviews in Phases 4 and

5. I had more opportunity to access the facilities of the private HE sector in Phases 1 and 2. Only a few of the observations were in notation form as most of the public and private HE institutions did not allow me to take notes or pictures of their facilities (i.e. the number of books, the library, computers, the role of the teacher in classroom management and participation or the number of students in any one classroom).

Selection of HE Institutions and interview sample

In the discussion of Bangladeshi private HE, it was explained that the notion of private HE is complex. The following discussion forms the basis of how I selected the different types of private HE institution (i.e. universities, HLIs, diploma institutions) for study in the first section. The second section will illustrate how the interview samples were chosen. Before discussing this issue, it is important to note that, because of the issue of confidentiality, the names of the universities/institutions and respondents do not appear in my thesis.

Selection of institution of HE

It is notable that the sample of institutions used in the study is quite large. Some may question why a smaller sample was not used, thus allowing for greater in-depth explanation. However, there are particular reasons why a fairly large sample of institutions was chosen. This is explained below.

Firstly, different kinds of private HE institutions have been established at different times and linked to the different phases of development that I discuss in chapter 1 and 3. Thus the various institutions have different objectives, challenges and governance structures.

I needed to be able to capture the diverse differences between the large number of institutions. I thus set out to include institutions that represented not only the different categories but also that were established at different phases. This meant that a large cohort of institutions needed to be sampled.

Universities

In total, thirteen private universities were selected from the five phases for the purpose of the study. Universities were chosen from different regions. Subjects offered by the universities were also tabulated for the purpose of the study. Moreover, universities in any phase were selected on the basis of their achieved performance. As an example, if more than one university were selected from a phase, initially, it was

considered according to the region and subjects offered. It was then considered on the basis of its performance: thus, both more and less successful universities were considered. However, a few universities have their own different levels of private HE institutions (i.e. school, college, university). One university was considered according to this criterion. Another university was considered from the franchise providers. Five public universities were chosen. Out of these, two are located in Dhaka (one specialising in Engineering), and of the other three, one is in Sylhet, one in Chittagong, and the other in Khulna³⁸. I considered these public universities as private HE mainly offers courses in IT, Computing and Business studies, and these universities are renowned for providing education in these courses.

Higher Learning Institutions (HLI)

I have already stated that two predominant controlling bodies, namely the NUB and the Directorate of Health, are employed to affiliate, control and monitor the HLI. The NUB is largely involved. In total, nine and two private HLIs were respectively selected from the NUB³⁹ and the Directorate of Health's affiliates on the basis of their establishment phase. Some HLIs work with different controlling bodies at the same time (i.e. NUB, BTEB, Directorate of Health, and Franchise provision) since they offer the education programmes for each of them. One institution was selected according to this criterion. It is worth mentioning that the region, subjects offered and performance bias was taken into account when selecting institutions (see: University section). One semi-government and franchise HLI was chosen. The only public HLI selected were two medical colleges located in Dhaka and Khulna (Dhaka Medical being an older institution, whilst Khulna is newly established), as the notion of private and public HLI⁴⁰ under NUB/BTEB is entirely different.

Diploma Institutions

By considering similar issues, I selected five private diploma institutions from two main controlling bodies, namely BTEB and the Directorate of Health, on the basis of the phase of establishment. One non-recognised diploma institution was selected.

³⁸ Universities in Dhaka and Chittagong are older, compared to Khulna and Sylhet. Authorities of the newer universities claim that they have been established with modern concepts and are regulated with dynamic management systems.

³⁹ More institutions will be chosen from the NUB affiliates.

⁴⁰ Diploma and Bachelor Masters degree providers in the field of medical science.

Sample for interview and questionnaire

It is proven that, to extract proper and reliable data, triangulation of samples is important (Cohen, *et. al.*, 2002). I investigated an entire sector focusing on governance and regulatory challenges, as suggested by Hammersley (2002), in order to consider the views of each group of people concerned within that sector. Within the respondents' community, the *questionnaire season* was dominated by the views of students, teachers and support staff. The *interview* season was dominated by key people in both the public and private HE sectors. The coherence followed for two seasons, simply because this study combines both qualitative and quantitative data survey approach to data collection.

In the selection of respondents to complete the questionnaire, even if a random approach was considered, the questionnaires were provided to the students, teachers and support staff of different departments with the *concept of demography*. In the selection of students for interview, triangulation of samples was undertaken, and different categories of students (excellent, less able, poor or rich family background, students involved in different activities such as politics, sports, culture) were interviewed. I selected two types of academic and administrative staff: (1) those holding responsible positions such as committee members or course directors/coordinators/organisers; (2) those with less responsible positions. In the selection of respondents from the controlling agencies (MOE, UGC, BTEB NUB), positional power prejudice was taken into account. However, a few respondents of the questionnaire season were also interested in being respondents of the interview season; these were considered.

Ethical issues and matters of confidentiality

Robson (2000) makes the point that, sometimes, guaranteeing confidentiality helps the researcher to elicit valid data. Though Patton (2002) agrees with Robson's opinion, he also points out issues of reliability. He emphasises that even when maintaining confidentiality, data collected can be reliable, but critics question the reliability on the grounds that there are almost no opportunities to verify the data collected. Having a little experience in conducting research in Bangladeshi HE, I observed that without maintaining confidentiality and *diplomatic liaison*, it is not

possible to receive accurate data. People are usually under threat of political and unfair dismissal, or wish to gain promotion.

It was important to develop some trust with the respondents before they would allow me to interview them (Bell 1993). I therefore sent a letter assuring them that confidentiality would be maintained, especially when the research would be presented in a paper. I also tried to further clarify my actual aims. The following reasons inspired me to maintain confidentiality for my respondents: researchers conduct research to enrich their knowledge, and research is conducted to discover outcomes which may help the sector function more effectively. No researcher intends to alter the reputation or position of an individual or specific organisation. If this does happen, researchers lose trust, which obviously means that they will encounter restrictions when conducting further research, particularly if respondents are scholars and familiar with research publications themselves (see: Alam, 2003). Private HE is concerned with business, and I am investigating the advantages and disadvantages of private education. As warned by Bell (1999) where commercial sensitivity is concerned, I decided not to mention the names of the private universities and institutions where the study was conducted.

When interviewing less powerful members of staff, academics or students, I noticed that they were more concerned about the issue of confidentiality as they were under the threat of unfair dismissal or other judgements. It is not possible, therefore, to write an introduction for every respondent. However, some details about respondents have been provided in earlier sections.

In consideration of confidentiality, I provided identity labels for the respondents (Cohen and Manion, 1997 and Hammersley, 1996). In the findings and discussions section of this thesis, the respondents of the *questionnaire season* will be referred to as PVHS, PUHS, PVHT, PUHT, PVHST, PVHAS, and PUHAS. These labels stand (respectively) for: Private Higher Education Student, Public Higher Education Student, Private Higher Education Teacher, Public Higher Education Teacher, Private Higher Education Support Staff, Private Higher Education Admission Test Student, and Public Higher Education Admission Test Student (see: table 8). The respondents in the interview season will be referred to as IPVHS, IPUHS, IPVHT, IPUHT, IPVHST, IGUDPVH, IGUDPUH, IUGC, IMOE, INUB, IBTEB, IKPV, IKPU which

respectively stand for Student of Private HE, Student of Public HE, Teacher of Private HE, Teacher of Public HE, Support staff of Private HE, Guardian of student studying in Private HE, Guardian of student studying in Public HE, Employee of University Grants Commission, Employees of the National University of Bangladesh, Employee of the Bangladesh Technical Education Board, Key Personnel in Private HE and Key Personnel in Public HE (see: table 9).

The names of the documents will be used for reference in the chapters Findings and Discussion (Chapters 5 to 8). However, I may sometimes refer to the documents review as DR. Observations will be referred to as OB.

PVHS	Private HE Student
PUHS	Public HE Student
PVHT	Private HE Teacher
PUHT	Public HE Teacher
PVHST	Private HE Support staff
PVHAS	Private HE Admission test Student
PUHAS	Public HE Admission test Student

Table 8: Labelling of respondents in questionnaire season

IPVHS	Interviews with Private HE student
IPUHS	Interviews with Public HE student
IPVHT	Interviews with Private HE Teacher
IPUHT	Interviews with Public HE Teacher
IPVHST	Interviews with Private HE support staff
IGUDPVH	Interviews with Guardians of Students studying in Private HE
IGUDPUH	Interviews with Guardians of Students studying in Public HE
IUGC	Interviews with employee of UGC
IMOE	Interviews with employee of MOE
INUB	Interviews with employee of NUB
IBTEB	Interviews with employee of BTEB
IKPV	Interviews with Key Personnel in Private HE sector
IHPU	Interviews with Key Personnel in Public HE sector

Table 9: Labelling of respondents in interview season

DR: Document Review

OB: Observation

Research limitations

There are few limitations of this project. The relative inexperience of the researcher and the degree of openness of the respondents as research subjects, were to some degree, limitations. These considerations remained with me during the entire research.: within the short research time period, it was fairly difficult to develop the trusting and open relationships required if the interviews were to yield optimum results.

During the interviews, it was sometimes difficult to find a balance between the probing researcher and the interested, friendly colleague. My relative inexperience as a researcher sometimes led to the use of leading questions and comments, and to miss opportunities to “follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings” (Bell, 1993, p91). The rapport between the interviewees and myself was sometimes variable. Having little experience in handling interviews for situations where the rapport was not so good may have affected the data collected (Oppenheim in Cohen, *et al.*, 2002 p122). However, after conducting a few interviews, my confidence grew. I interviewed legislators and key personnel of the private HE sector during the final phase, when my confidence in conducting interviews was at its peak. It is worth noting that legislators and some key personnel in the public and private HE sectors enjoy explaining their success rather than answering specific questions: even though they fully understand the questions they try to sidetrack them. Some of the people involved in politics had a tendency to blame their opponents for wrong occurrences. The problems encountered in the interviews were hard to resolve within the time limitations. After gathering ideas from several respondents, I felt the need to ask further questions of some respondents in order to cross-refer the answers, but was unable to do so.

In addition, this was a personal research, and gaining support from some of the private universities and institutions, controlling agencies and foreign missions was, to some extent, limited. Being an individual researcher with no connection to local or international funders (DFID, local government project), it was not possible to gain their full confidence. Within the scope of this individual research, I was unable to

collect some necessary data and documents from the local British Council, USIS, the Indian High commission and some other foreign missions required to thoroughly examine some queries.

As an 'insider' from Bangladesh, I enjoyed many advantages (language, culture, attitude of the respondent), but to some extent, I may have been given more support by the authorities of different organisations (UGC, MOE, private universities, foreign missions) if I had been a foreign academic, a staff member at a university in a well-developed country, or a researcher with an affiliation to international funders. In Bangladeshi culture, and possibly in other cultures of the Third World, people may be more interested in providing support to Western people. In these circumstances, and within the scope of this research, I was unable to collect certain data and documents – the Annual Audit Reports and Reports of Accounts of Public and Private universities.

However, a significant amount of data was collected, and selection of data for analysis and presentation became problematic (Patton, 2002). Avoiding my own 'bias and subjectivity' (Nesbitt and Watts cited in Cohen, *et al.*, 2000, p184) in relation to what should be presented in my thesis and what should be left out was difficult. Having said that, the data selected is, I believe, representative of what I saw, heard and noted.

In conclusion, I do not claim that this study is postulate forever, but the first study of Bangladeshi private HE. It could become a model for further studies. I also argue that other countries in the Third World, apart from Bangladesh, could benefit from the findings, discussions and suggestions of this study.

Chapter 5: Private Higher Education and the demand for educational qualifications in Bangladesh

Introduction

This chapter will analyse the development of private HE in Bangladesh. In addition, it will form the basis of discussion in the following chapters (especially Chapters 6, 7 and 8). In order to achieve this, the following research questions will be answered:

What has expanded the demand for qualifications in Bangladesh?

Why is the private HE sector growing?

What are the motives of entrepreneurs in establishing the private HE sector?

What is the present situation of the private HE sector?

The discussion which follows is divided into five parts. The first investigates the common issues supporting the expansion of education in Bangladesh. The second focuses on the reasons for the expansion of private HE. The third discusses the motives of entrepreneurs behind the expansion of the sector. The fourth provides an account of the present situation within the private HE sector. The final provides a summary of this discussion. This will use fieldwork data from a 'document review' rather than from secondary literature as the main source of information.

The above table shows that in 1998, the total enrolment in primary education is highest when the age group population for primary education is the highest. However, the net enrolment column shows that net enrolment in 1998 is higher than in 1997, but lower in the years that follow. The net enrolment in 2003 is higher than the previous years, where the total enrolment is lower. This is simply because child survival is increasing and has no impact on total enrolment but, ultimately, has no impact on net enrolment. The data confirms that education in Bangladesh is definitely becoming an issue of increasing importance.

What has expanded the demand for qualifications in Bangladesh?

Education and Traditionalism

Year	Enrolment (All ages)	Official Age Group Population (6-10 years) for Primary Education	Enrolled Official Age Group Population (6-10 years) in Primary Education	Gross Enrolment Rate (GER)	Net Enrolment Rate (NER)
1997	18,031,673	18,861,583	15,113,783	95.60	80.13
1998	18,360,642	19,079,888	15,538,661	96.23	81.44
1999	17,621,731	18,307,265	15,229,814	96.23	83.19
2000	17,667,985	18,296,312	15,667,538	96.56	85.63
2001	17,659,220	18,114,198	15,680,666	97.49	86.57
2002	17,561,828	18,040,023	15,637,110	97.35	86.68

Source: BANBEIS annual reports

Table 10: Enrolment at Primary level

Before analysing Table 10, it is important to note that the data is presented from 'primary education' level, since both dropouts and the number of graduates with the prerequisite qualifications control the enrolments at the 'secondary' and 'tertiary' levels.

The above table shows that, in 1998, the total enrolment in primary education is highest when the *age group population* for primary education is the highest. However, the net enrolment column shows that net enrolment in 1998 is higher than in 1997, but lower in the years that follow. The net enrolment in 2002 is higher than the previous years, where the total enrolment is lower. This is simply because birth control is increasing and has an impact on total enrolment but, ultimately, has no impact on net enrolment. The data confirms that education in Bangladesh is definitely becoming an issue of increasing importance.

	Total Population (Age 15+ to 65)	Total Employed Population	Total Unemployed Population	Educated Workforce (grade IX to onwards)	Educated WF Employed	Educated WF Unemployed	Non- educated WF (No education to VIII)	Non- educated WF Employed	Non- educated WF Unemployed
2000	7,50,65,000 (100%)	4,32,20,000 (57.58%)	3,18,45,000 (42.42%)	1,68,29,573 (100%)	78,87,000 (58.75%)	69,42,573 (41.25%)	5,82,35,427 (100%)	3,24,57,000 (55.73)	257,78,427 (44.27%)
2005	7,65,00,000 (100%)	4,32,25,000 (56.50%)	3,32,75,000 (43.50%)	2,83,05,000 (100%)	1,27,3500 (44.96%)	1,55,80,000 (55.04%)	4,81,95,000 (100%)	3,05,00,000 (63.28%)	1,76,95000 (36.72)
2000	8,08,43,000 (100%)	4,50,00,000 (55.66%)	3,58,43,000 (44.44%)	3,83,4300 (100%)	1,32,45,000 (34.54%)	2,50,98,000 (65.46%)	4,25,00,000 (100%)	2,92,00,000 (68.71%)	1,33,00,000 (31.29%)

Source: Personal communication

Table 11: Education – Employment

Before commenting on the data presented in Table 11, I shall explain the reason for personal communication when collecting data. For political reasons⁴¹, the government of Bangladesh does not wish to reveal that there is huge unemployment amongst educated people. As there are no official documents available, I therefore had to collect data via personal communication⁴². A few important factors are noted:

- Women involved in household jobs are shown as unemployed. However, their work has a significant contribution to development. Many women with household jobs are part of a non-educated group. If they were included in the table as an employed non-educated workforce, the percentage of employed non-educated workforce would be higher. Moreover, educated women working as housewives (These women are wives in a privileged group. They do not work, either inside or outside the house) are not contributing to development as they employ servants to do their work (servants are not considered as an employed workforce)
- Students are considered as an unemployed group. There is no data available on the total student population. If they were not included as an unemployed workforce, the total unemployed population would be lower. However, this has no impact on the non-educated employed workforce.

⁴¹ If any government shows that there is a large number of unemployed educated people, they may not be able to gain the public vote in a general election. There is also a threat from donor agencies. To receive funding, the government shows that the education system is working well and contributing significantly to development.

⁴² I contacted a Statistics Officer working with the Bangladesh Bureau Of Statistics. He provided me within the information in compiling the primary data collected for the census.

The table shows that the unemployment rate amongst educated people⁴³ is much higher and is increasing more rapidly than that of employment amongst uneducated people. This generates the following questions: can education create jobs? Is education provided in accordance with job market demand in Bangladesh? Do we need to provide education according to job market demand? I feel that, if education were provided according to job market demand, this would bring development and create more employment for more people.

Despite the unemployment rate amongst educated people being higher (and increasing) than that of employment amongst uneducated people, education is rising in Bangladesh. People consider education to be a tradition that they should pursue; education is thought of as a 'traditional right'. Pursuing education in order to obtain a job or to fulfil a thirst for knowledge confirms the need for balanced courses and curricula delivered through a significant academic atmosphere. In contrast, pursuing education as a 'traditional right' could be a threat to development. An analogy; in Bangladesh, many, particularly adolescents, do not follow their religion strictly, and yet still claim to be pious⁴⁴. Since it is tradition that has introduced rival religious groups into society, likewise, if the people of Bangladesh pursue education as just an heritable tradition, and not to meet a perceived need, it will impact negatively upon national development.

Prerequisite qualifications and further study

Although a significant number of graduates are unemployed (see: Table 11), the ultimate goal of most students is to achieve good employment. To achieve a desirable job, candidates need to have a higher 'diploma' for competing in the employment market. Consequently, further education is an increasing feature in overcoming the obstacles of dropout rate and prerequisite qualifications. The following data

⁴³ We also need to consider that educated people are employed in underpaid work which has a negative impact on returning to investment in education. For example, if a Masters' degree holder is working as a receptionist, their earnings are not an actual return for the investment in the education. To work as a receptionist, a candidate needs to have a basic education and some training. The production cost for a Masters' degree holder is considerably more than that of a receptionist.

⁴⁴ The word 'religion' is currently suffering from constraints. People of different regions and religions are in conflict on the grounds of their opposing beliefs, because they are not strict religious adherents. It is important to note that, if people pursue education purely for heritage purposes rather than actual need, there is the possibility that an inappropriate atmosphere will be introduced into the education sector.

demonstrates that increasing numbers of students holding prerequisite qualifications influences the expansion of the number of students gaining further studies.

Number of students passing SSC	Year	Number of students appeared HSC	Year
138,317	1990	247,663	1992
308,676	1991	318,312	1993
321,675	1992	398,540	1994
404,402	1993	468,801	1995
490,099	1994	514,668	1996
560,114	1995	584,962	1997
197,811	1996	479,028	1998
368,803	1997	518,648	1999
346,435	1998	470,541	2000
457,252	1999	525,755	2001
408,969	2001	501,507	2003

Source: BANBEIS Annual Reports

Table 12: Prerequisite qualification influencing further study

SSC is the first official prerequisite qualification in Bangladesh. With SSC, students can select from a variety of different study programmes (i.e. HSE, Diploma, Teacher Education, Pre-BBA) leading to an HSC and Diploma level qualifications. There had been a trend that, once achieving a SSC, almost all students joined an HSE. Recently, however, a fair number of students have been pursuing Diploma level education and Pre-BBA, although this cannot be compared with the number of students studying at HSE level. Moreover, it is evident that academically able students are following the HSE. The HSE is a two-year programme – students who pass the SSC can appear in the HSC examination at least two years after their SSC graduation. However, the number of students studying for the HSC is greater than the number of students who passed the SSC. This is simply because, every year, many students fail the HSC and re-sit within the following two years. However, figures from 1990 to 1995 show that SSC graduates are a growing feature in Bangladesh; the numbers of candidates appearing in the HSC examination have increased in the time period 1992 to 1997. In 1996, the total number of SSC graduates was extremely low; for two principal reasons:

- The Government took measures to control the birth rate between 1980-81. Children in Bangladesh could attend school at the age of 5 to 6 years. After ten academic years, students can sit the SSC examination, and in 1996 the total number of candidates in SSC was low.
- The Government imposed a new examination system in SSC to ensure a high quality education, so less able students no longer appear in SSC⁴⁵ – this reduced the total number of SSC examinees. A major portion of SSC examinees also failed the SSC exam.

Due to the low total number of SSC graduates in 1996, the number of HSC candidates in 1998 was lower than in other years. However, the number of HSC candidates in 1998 was not very low in comparison with the SSC graduates of 1996. This is because a large number of students who failed to pass HSC in 1997 re-sat in 1998. The SSC years of 1997, 1998 and 1999 illustrate the view very clearly. The year 1997 shows that the total number of SSC graduates had once again increased, simultaneously affecting the number of HSC examinees in 1999. Conversely, in 1998, the total number of SSC graduates decreased, so the number of HSC candidates in 2000 reduced. The increase of SSC graduates in 1999 contributed significantly to the increase in HSC candidates in 2001. Finally, in 2001, the total number of SSC graduates decreased, and the candidates of HSC in 2003 followed this decrease.

Rising enrolment: expansion of the school

Rising enrolments always result in the establishment of new schools, or in an increase of the enrolment capacity of schools already established. Conversely, decreasing enrolment results in the collapse of established schools. This correlation is not usually evident from a very short observation period. However, this situation can be seen in Bangladesh in a very short space of time. To exemplify this issue, I will again present the data from primary level, as this level is the first indicator to government and donor agencies.

⁴⁵ Every school conducts a pre-test in order to select the more able students for the SSC examination conducted by the Education Board.

Year	Total number of primary students	Total number of primary schools
1997	18,031,673	77,685
1998	18,360,642	79,803
1999	17,621,731	78,840
2000	17,667,985	76,809
2001	17,659,220	78,126
2002	17,561,828	78,363

BANBEIS Annual Reports

Table 13: Enrolments: Expansion of School

Table 10 shows that '*primary education*' in Bangladesh is increasing. Due to 'birth control', the primary school population is decreasing, thus the total enrolment in primary education is falling, even though the country is about to achieve *100% enrolment in primary education*. This situation results in no expansion of new schools and sometimes forces the closure of schools already established.

Table 13 shows that the total number of primary schools was highest in 1998 and decreased in the following years as total enrolment in primary education declined. However, the impact is only slightly noticeable at primary level because of huge funds received from international donor agencies.

The increase and decrease of enrolment at primary level must have an impact on enrolment at secondary and tertiary levels. Birth control may enormously reduce the total enrolment at every level (primary to tertiary) in future, albeit achievement of desired net enrolment (100%) will force the country to close established schools. This, in turn, must have a negative impact in relation to the employment market and the educational expenditure required in order to establish schools.

A question should be asked about what then happens to the person, and their family, who has settled their life according to the job in which they are employed. It is quite obvious; they must seek alternative employment in order to meet family demands. However, lack of jobs may force many to take to crime. Thus, a long-term vision is needed to identify the needs of the populace accurately.

Following this brief illustration of the context of the expansion of education, the principal focus of the chapter will be the rationale for the development of the private HE sector in Bangladesh.

Why is the private HE sector growing?

The following discussion is divided into two parts; the first explores the general reasons for the expansion of private HE as a whole, and the second focuses on specific reasons for the growth of different types of private HE institutions (e.g. university, HLI, Diploma institution and Franchise).

General reasons for the growth of private HE

The general reasons causing the development of private HE found are discussed below.

Rising student enrolment and limited space in the public HE sector

Year	Number of students officially qualified to pursue HE (especially Bachelor-Hon) with HSC
1990	60,583
1991	65,007
1992	84,632
1993	91,786
1994	129,834
1995	178,985
1996	107,332
1997	197,835
1998	192,959
1999	248,628

Table 14: BANBEIS Annual Reports

Before analysing this table, it is important to clarify why data from 1990 to 1999 has been considered. Although thirteen public universities were established after 1990, they do not significantly contribute to an increase in enrolment, as the public universities established after 1990 were already operating as HLIs before 1990. For instance, the Bangladesh Institution of Engineering and Technology, Khulna (BIET,

Khulna), was a HLI but has been recently renamed as Khulna University of Engineering and Technology (KUET), whilst retaining the same structure. Moreover, the preface of the NUB and BOU (both established in 1992) is analogous. Before the establishment of the NUB, activities now carried out by the NUB were conducted by three other universities (Dhaka, Chittagong and Rajshahi Universities). The BOU is also unable to significantly increase enrolment at tertiary level because of its main operation at secondary, higher secondary and language education levels through *distance mode* for school leavers. It is also noted that no special new infrastructure was established for these two universities (NUB and BOU). They were established on the abandoned campus of the Islamic University⁴⁶. Moreover, literature shows that development of the private HE sector began in the developing world from the early 1990s due to the influence of donor agencies (e.g. World Bank, IMF). Furthermore, the period (a 10 year segment) was considered, as literature argues that rising student enrolment is an initial indicator in the expansion of private education. Indeed, once expansion begins as a result of rising enrolment, further expansion is biased by a number of issues (i.e. politics, market situations, national characteristics of the people, globalisation).

The table shows that officially qualified students at HE level are an increasing feature for every year, with the exception of 1996. A small decrease is also noted in 1998. Thus, it can be advised that, by reviewing a ten-year segment initially, the growth in the number of students having the official prerequisite to study at HE level forces the country to expand the private HE sector. The following discussion aims to clarify further, interrelated reasons for private HE expansion.

Currency and Capitalism in education

The concept of '*currency and capitalism*' in education is given by Sayed and Rose. They argue that employers demand *job-ready graduates*; thus, not a *customary diploma* but a diploma in a technical and profession-based programme is important, as jobs are provided to graduates who have accrued professional experience through their study programme.

⁴⁶ Establishing an Islamic university was a dream of ex-President Mr Ziaur Rahaman. He committed to its establishment in Kustia. After his death, his successor Hossain Mohammed Ershad established the Islamic University in Gazipur. In 1991, BNP (a political party formed by Mr. Ziaur) regained power. Mrs. Ziaur was selected as the state chief, and she shifted the Islamic University to Kustia

There is a common saying in the developing world, especially in Southern Asia, which claims, “it is decade of globalisation which is for Computer Science and Business.” Therefore, learners and their sponsors consider that a degree in Computer Science or Business is an important factor when building a career. While the public HE sector has ignored the existing demand of employment partners, private universities take the opportunity to offer these courses. For example, the Bangladesh University of Engineering & Technology (BUET) is the first preference of Bangladeshi students wishing to study technical and engineering higher education. Each year around eight hundred new students can enrol in the BUET; BUET receives more than eight thousand applications. Naturally the prerequisite qualification in the BUET admission test is extremely high. No space is allocated on the application form for students facing the admission test to indicate their preferred subject of study. After an arduous contest in the written examination, about one thousand students are called for viva and, after the viva-voce, BUET will ask the students’ first preference. In 1999, 826 students from the 1025 called for the viva indicated that Computer Science and Engineering was their first preference. However, there was very limited capacity available for studying the subject. Therefore, students were denied the study of Computer Science and Engineering. They studied in other subjects provided by BUET instead; it is a well-reputed university. A similar situation for studying Business is noticeable in the Institution of Business Administration, Dhaka University.

Students who are not selected in the BUET/IBA must try other public universities to study a popular subject (see: page 171-175). However, students prefer to study a less popular subject in a public university than a popular subject in a private university. This situation forces the private HE sector to offer popular subjects to students who are not sufficiently qualified to study. The students are interested because these subjects are in demand in the job market.

Having said that, many non-competent students have already achieved degrees from the private HE sector in technical and professionally based subjects, especially in Computer Science. The course curriculum was not sufficiently up-to-date and facilities for practical training were rather limited in public universities. Teachers in public universities are also offering coaching in the private universities. These problems result in the production of graduates who are incapable of doing the jobs

required of them. As the graduates do not perform well in the jobs, most computing businesses have collapsed, thus the employment market in Computer Science is narrowing and, consequently, students are not currently interested in studying these subjects. Because of the current crisis in the job market in Bangladesh in these subjects, the private HE sector is concentrating on specified and differentiated demands.

Specified and differentiated demands

Initially, the private HE sector offered courses related to *currency and capitalism* in education. The basic aim of currency and capitalism is to establish the ‘human capital’ by increasing the productivity of graduates to perform a job well. The newly-established private HE sector has countless limitations and is not able to achieve this aim (see: Chapter 7). The circumstances have forced it to work on *specified and differentiated demands*.

In Bangladesh, especially after an HSC, students can not enrol in public universities with a two year academic gap, so such students consider studying in private HE. Additionally, people with less academic education were well established earlier, since there was a deficit of educated people. So some people who did not achieve a higher degree earlier aim to study now. This *specific demand* is being met by the private HE sector, which it considers as ‘*continuing education*’. Many students interested in ‘continuing education’ choose to study the MBA degree, to enhance their income and prestige level whilst staying in their existing profession. Moreover, pursuing *polytechnic* education and certificate courses were neglected earlier, which is why there are still places left in the job market for *polytechnic* graduates. The private HE sector is also working in these areas.

Substantial numbers of private HE institutions also offer a degree in different professional courses (i.e. Law, Architecture, Teacher Education, Library Science, Textile Engineering,), simply because by gaining these degrees people can enhance their income level. For example, in Bangladesh, people do not need a degree in ‘*teacher education*’ to become a teacher. However, once they are in the profession, a degree in ‘teacher education’ increases their salary potential and hence many existing teachers desire to acquire the degree by paying minimum tuition fees without regularly attending the classes.

Political and policy influence

The development of private HE is a political objective. The national politics of Bangladesh are dominated and controlled by the HE environment (Alam 2003). The BNP government inaugurated the development of private HE. They have a '*slumbering*' intention of establishing the private HE sector, especially university provision. They believe that the initiators involved in BNP who are establishing private universities will recruit the academics from BNP supporters. So the academics focus their political outlook on the students who will provide them with more 'political tools' (IPVHT, IPUHT, IPVHST). Conversely, the Bangladesh *Aouwami League* believes that the governing body (GB) of the HLI is more important for promotion of a political atmosphere at HE level. Accordingly, they emphasised the establishment of affiliated institutions under the NUB, as the institution/college working in collaboration with the NUB must have a GB. Members of the GB are selected by the NUB (IMOE, IPVHT). In addition, two VCs of the NUB appointed by the Bangladesh *Aouwami League* were incompetent leaders. This is why irregularities were practised in NUB management, resulting in a wide expansion of private HLIs. It is worth noting that recently, a VC of the NUB, also an adherent of the BNP, has seriously affected NUB management⁴⁷ and the *chain of command*. Presently, politicians and concerned authorities are providing licences for the establishment of private HE institutions, in exchange for bribes given by the entrepreneurs.

It is a political marvel that the Bangladesh *Aouwami League* is working in collaboration with the Indian Government. On the other hand, the BNP is working against them, so BNP advertises that the country needs private HE in order to accommodate local students, so students would not go to India to study HE, thus saving considerable currency.

Elite demand

Data concerning the location of private HE institutions confirms that most of them are in Dhaka. A few of them are located elsewhere, but they are still located within *elite* regions (areas where the wealthier people live). For example, private universities in Dhaka are in the elite regions of the city. It can be noted that thirteen universities

⁴⁷ Illegal sexual relationships with colleagues, massive political employment, more employment than positions available

are located at Kamal Ataturk Avenue, which is a road a mere 1500 yards long, Banani, and Dhaka –the most elite area of Dhaka.

Available information on tuition fees for private universities shows that fees varied in terms of the university or subject chosen. However, minimum tuition fees of a non-elite private university in an academic year are more than TK: 50,000.00. (Equivalent to \$935) – very high when compared with the average GDP of the country (less than \$400). Furthermore, in order to meet other standards (stationery, food, accommodation, culture and recreation) in private university life, students must spend more money in comparison to public university life (see: page 175-178). Although tuition fees and other expenditure is comparatively lower in HLIs and Diploma institutions, they are still considerable even for students from an average economic background, let alone from the working classes.

Family, status, address and occupation of guardians also demonstrate that the majority of students studying in private universities have an ‘elite family background’. *Elites* do not pursue Diploma-level qualifications, even if they are not qualified to study in a university. Earlier, HE was monopolised by the public universities. The elite were admitted into the system in exchange for bribes or political influence. Now the private HE system is also used. Thus, it can be inferred that the elite of the country want HE at any cost.

Student politics

Student politics has been identified as one of the major constraints in the development of HE in Bangladesh. The public HE sector seriously suffers from this problem. Alam (2003) found that, in Bangladesh, the total working days in public HE were 78, 65, 78, 77, 102 and 22 respectively in 2000, 1999, 1998, 1997, 1996, 1995. Other days were postponed because of political unrest, weekends, and public holidays. In addition, a large number of students are killed each year during periods of unrest caused by student politics. In such circumstances, the public HE sector is unable to complete its academic affairs within the targeted time. The research illustrates that a three-year Bachelor degree takes at least six years to complete. Students and their sponsors want a safer learning atmosphere from which students can graduate within the specified and pre-planned academic calendar (IPVHT, IPUHT, IGUDPVH, IGUDPUH). It is highlighted in the admission circulation offered by

private institutions of HE that their campuses are free from student politics, and thus, the issue of student politics helps the development of the private HE.

Safety of pre-investment

The legislation set up in establishing self-financed institutions in HE has ensured the safety of pre-investment, or at least a primary investment is a negligible amount (see: Chapter 8). Entrepreneurs are not required to provide a deposit (apart from bribes) to the Government, which the government can take into account as a revoke amount to punish the entrepreneurs when a private HE institution is misguided or fails to be run by the entrepreneurs. The entrepreneurs need to show bank evidence⁴⁸, demonstrating that they have a certain level of finance to meet the required expenditure. They also need to provide evidence that they have a certain amount of rented land or property (see: Private University Act 1992). Although there is an official agenda that a private institution of HE must satisfy the inspection teams, that they have adequate facilities to accommodate the needs of the students (i.e. library, laboratory, computer), this agenda is fulfilled by a cursory survey. The entrepreneurs usually bribe the inspection team; they borrow books, computers, and other equipment from individuals (relatives or friends) or from a seller by renting any necessary items for a single day⁴⁹ (IPVHST).

The unemployment rate of educated people is high (see: page 118-119) therefore unemployed graduates are prepared to work within the private HE institution in return for very small financial reward. They want to join the educational enterprise as it will further enhance their knowledge in pursuing higher education and jobs (IPVHST, IPVHT). Furthermore, jobs in the private HE sector are mainly based in Dhaka. Thus they can search for new jobs and scope for further studies in developed countries, (since Dhaka is the only city in Bangladesh which has relatively good access to media services), and become familiar with the global environment (IPVHT). Academics who have retired from the public HE sector wish to be occupied in some form of work. The people involved in the private HE sector are colleagues or teachers of people involved

⁴⁸ Valid information is given by an employee working at a private university that the university provided a fake bank certificate, however the entrepreneurs have very good connections with the concerned authority so no-one officially checks the bank certificate.

⁴⁹ It was also noted from a conversation with a seller of the equipment that he gives an unconditional loan to the entrepreneurs. If they manage to establish the institutions, they will usually buy the equipment from him.

in their public counterparts. As a result, colleagues in the public counterparts have non-written agreements that they will lecture, if the institution can run the programme (IPUHT).

Entrepreneurs can claim their initial investment back at any time if they fail to survive; therefore the entrepreneurs in the private HE sector are comparatively relaxed when compared with other business entrepreneurs, and the high amount deposited in the name of the institution is safer. Again, it is important to know that there is no taxation of an income from providing education, so the income is both net and secure. These situations are very important for the expansion of the private HE sector as the amount of risk to primary investment is low.

Fond of sensations

“It is historically proven that Bangali is a nation fond of sensations. The people of the country embark upon enterprises with neither the proper data nor information. It is also noticed that the other sectors earlier monopolised by the Government (i.e. Bank, Financial Institutions) have rapidly expanded, once restriction was removed for the operation of private provision.” (IPUHT)

Whilst their unexpected collapse offers lessons for the newly established sector, some people have huge amounts of ‘black money’ and they wish to make it ‘*clean*’. Entrepreneurs in the newly established sector are not asked to submit information regarding their source of income. People with large amounts of money also want to be seen as reputable, well-known figures of society. They believe that, in being an educator, they could be known as an *intellectual* of the community, and these circumstances combine to motivate them towards the establishment of education enterprises (IKPV, IPVHT, IPVHST).

Budgetary constraints

Government budgetary constraint is of concern in the privatisation of HE. Being an underdeveloped country means a dependence on foreign aid or international donations. The donor agencies accept development in the area of primary education, literacy and adult education, and consequently HE lacks necessary financing. As is

evidenced by research, providing technical subjects in HE demands a high budget, but data available shows that the budget for HE and Diploma level Technical Education is extremely low.

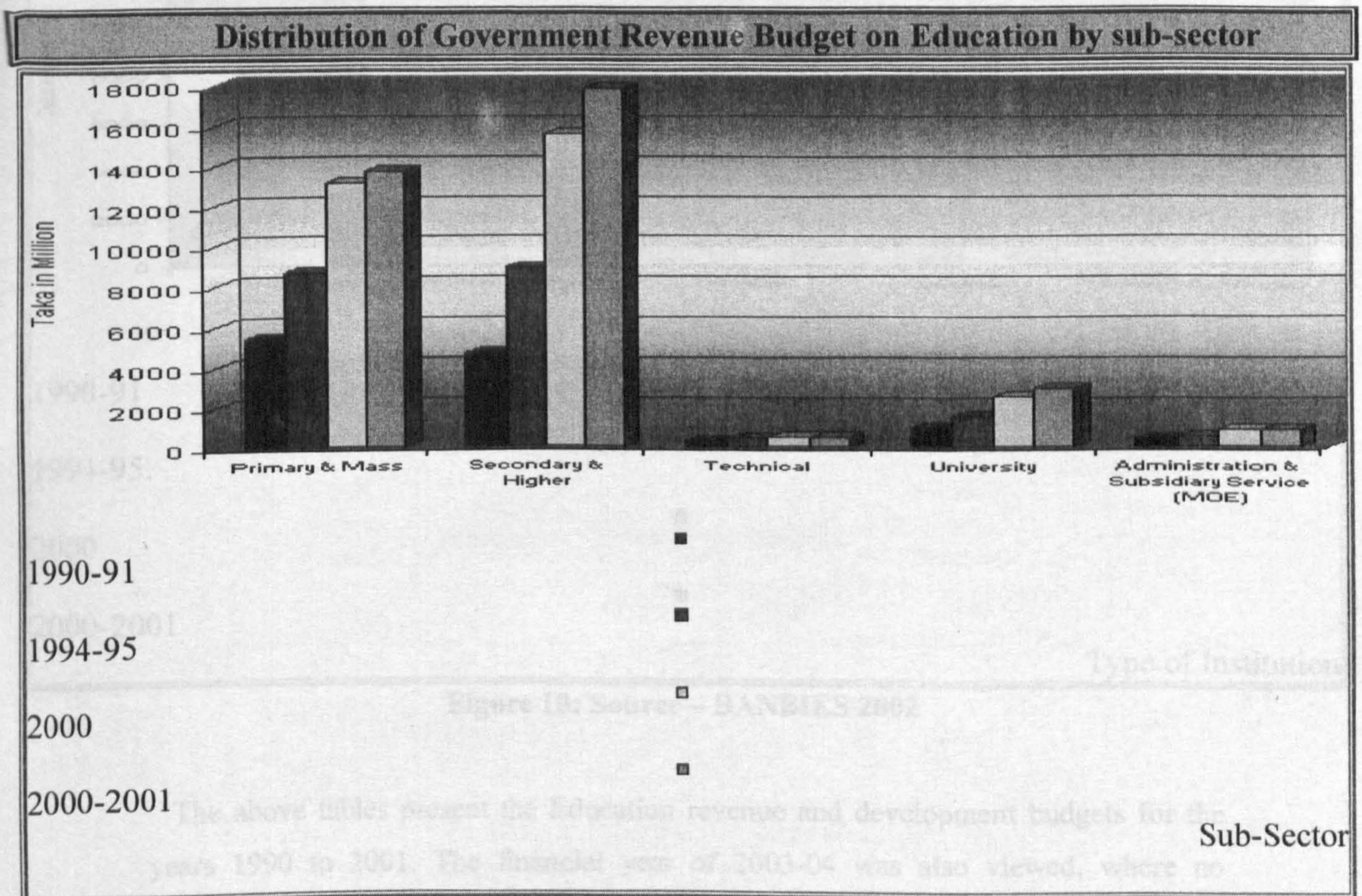


Figure 9: Source – BANBIES 2002

Distribution of Government Development Budget in Education by sub-sector

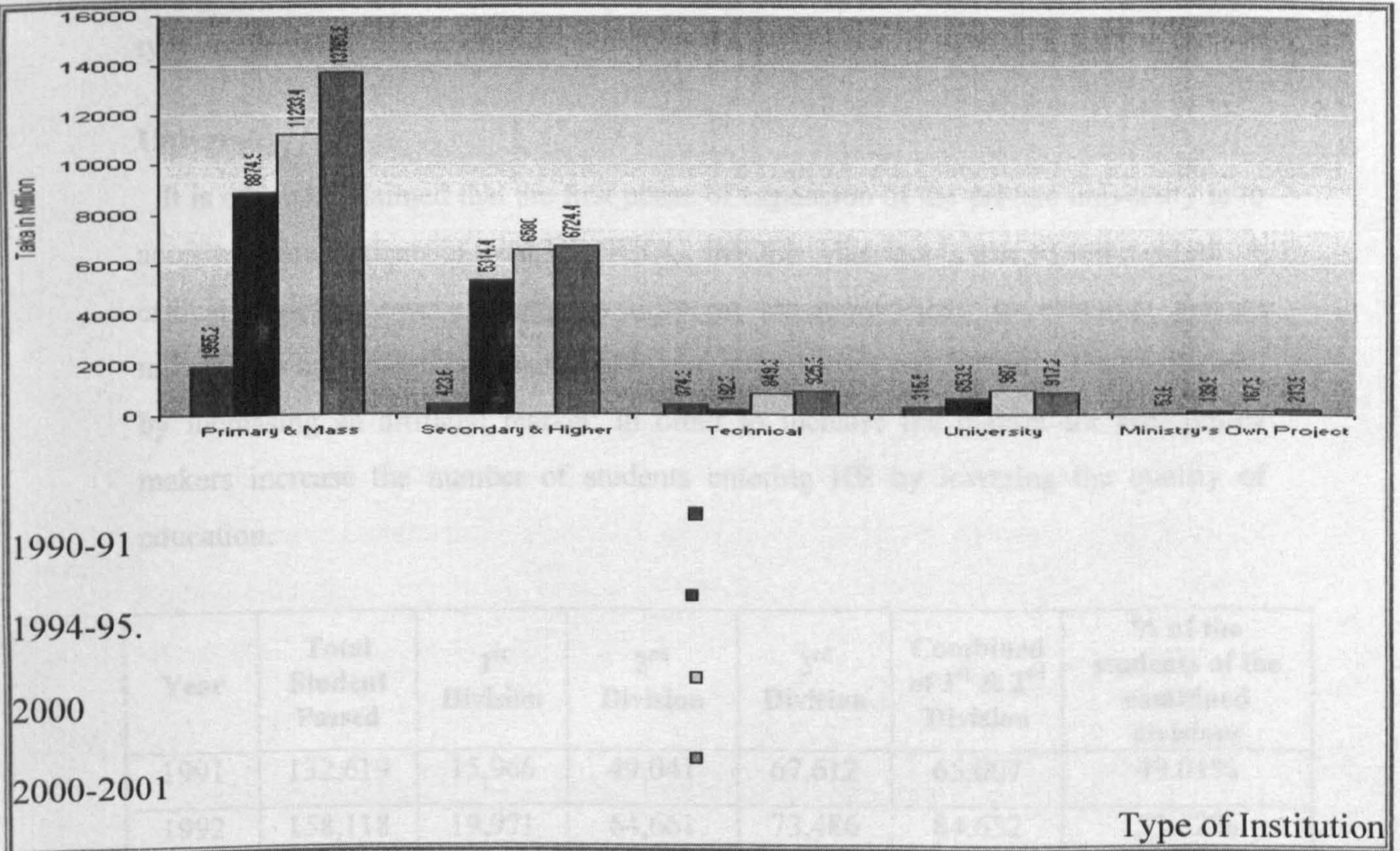


Figure 10: Source – BANBIES 2002

The above tables present the Education revenue and development budgets for the years 1990 to 2001. The financial year of 2003-04 was also viewed, where no financial development in favour of university and technical education provision was observed. Practically no public universities were established after 1991, apart from some HE institutions or enterprises that converted into universities whilst retaining their original structure. Thus no completely new investments have been involved (see: page 123-124). Since there are no changes to the infrastructure, apart from being newly named as a university, the size and shape of the public university remains unchanged. Such circumstances have resulted in the expansion of private HE.

Why are different types of private HE institutions growing?

In the following section I shall focus on the reasons for the expansion of different types of private HE institutions.

University

It is officially claimed that the first phase of expansion of the private university is to accommodate students in local HE (IUGC, IMOIE). This fact is true to some extent. A critical review, however, suggests different situations: that, to establish private universities and make them sustainable, the government and legislators support them by increasing an artificial market. In order to increase the market for HE, policy makers increase the number of students entering HE by lowering the quality of education.

Year	Total Student Passed	1 st Division	2 nd Division	3 rd Division	Combined of 1 st & 2 nd Division	% of the students of the combined divisions
1991	132,619	15,966	49,041	67,612	65,007	49.01%
1992	158,118	19,971	64,661	73,486	84,632	53.52%
1993	147,429 Note: the combination of three divisions' result is 135,662	21,583	70,203	43,876	91,786	62.25%
1994	161,046	30,471	99,363	31,212	129,834	80.62%
1995	217,546	39,600	139,385	38,561	178,985	82.27%
1996	127,504	25,877	81,455	20,172	107,332	84.18%
1997	229,796	43,764	154,071	31,961	197,835	86.09%
1998	220,748	46,999	145,960	27,789	192,959	87.41%

Source: Statistical Books of BANBEIS, published for different years

Table 15: HSC Statistics

Before analysing Table 15, it is important to note that to pursue HE (Honours level), students require a minimum qualification of second division both in SSC and

HSC. Thus, students who have first division or second division in HSC⁵⁰ should have the qualifications to pursue an Honours level degree course commonly offered by private universities. The table shows that the percentage of students passing HSC securing either first division or second division is an increasing consequence commencing just after the introduction of private universities. It is well evidenced that the quality of the students who passed the HSC before 1993 is far better than those who passed after 1993 (IPUHT, IPVHT).

Hence it can be concluded that although the initial stage to establish private universities was to accommodate the demand unfulfilled by their public counterparts (students suitable for higher education), and thereafter to make them sustainable in the market, policy makers have increased student numbers with students unsuitable for higher education, which ultimately must have a negative impact upon higher education.

HLI

Former legislators working with private universities after retirement were once against private universities and their philosophy. They had grave concerns with issues of quality and the high tuition fees charged by private universities. Some translated quotations express their views:

“Private universities are machines for earning profit rather than weapons for educating students.” (Islam⁵¹ 1997)

“Most private universities are profit-making coaching centres.” (Haque⁵² 2002)

“Some of the private universities are awarding degrees in ceremonies but they don’t have the right to do so. If the students are challenged, certificates must be cancelled.” (Shaidullah⁵³ 2004)

⁵⁰ The pass rate at SSC is always higher than HSC; thus it is realistic that a student having Second Division in HSC must have secured Second Division in SSC, other than with extreme bad luck or in difficult circumstances.

⁵¹ Dr Islam was Vice Chancellor of the National University of Bangladesh and presently holds the Chair of Vice Chancellor at a private university established at the fifth phase by a BNP-supporter/industrialist.

⁵² Dr. Haque was the chairman of the University Grants Commission and presently holds the Chair of Vice Chancellor at a private university established at the first phase by an Aouwami League supporter/industrialist. This university is presently recommended to close by UGC.

Ex-President Mr Ahameed believes that every individual within society needs to pursue a better quality education at a minimal cost. Thus he, along with perhaps some academics who may succumb to particular opportunities, planned to establish HLIs under the NUB (IPVHT). They advocate that the NUB is a public 'affiliating university'; thus, institutions working under the NUB must provide quality education. In accordance with their plan, a good number of private HLIs were established. Unfortunately, the HLIs established under the NUB are not effective enough to provide quality education, as corrupt NUB management affiliated many bogus institutions. The NUB academics, hired mainly from Dhaka University, are also involved with the private universities. These academics are responsible for designing the course curricula and assessing the examination papers of the NUB affiliated students. As they receive a vast amount of money from the private universities, they do not want to create a real academic atmosphere for NUB affiliates.

Diploma Institution

The wide expansion of affiliated Diploma-level institutions is a topical issue which is emerging mainly for two reasons.

Firstly, private and public universities and HLIs have moderately failed in the production of competent and highly skilled manpower, insofar as university graduates are working in placements usually served by diploma graduates (IMOE). This situation motivates the students to pursue a diploma education. Students on diploma programmes in the private sector are comparatively older as there are no age restrictions. Some university graduates who have graduated in a *traditional subject* are now pursuing diploma education in technical and vocational subjects. In the decade of the *currency and capitalism* of education, they pursue a diploma education with the aim of becoming the skilled manpower of a global society.

The second reason is political. The Prime Minister and some of her associates believe that the country needs to gain foreign currency by exporting skilled manpower (IMOE). Study and field surveys by 'predisposed' educators show that there is plenty of scope for earning foreign currency by exporting skilled manpower, trained in

⁵³ Former UGC secretary and presently the registrar of a private university established in the first phase by a religious group.

technical and vocational diploma education. They recommend that the Ministries of Education, Health and Youth and Sport should establish private diploma-level institutions. To encourage students to enrol for a diploma-level qualification, the Prime Minister conveys her message publicly. Television and radio programmes are also encouraging students to pursue a diploma education.

Franchise

The history of Franchise HE (University, HLIs, and Diploma level) is older than locally affiliated private HE. The first locally affiliated private university began its operation in 1992, but London University started its business through franchise provision many years before. A similar situation is also noticeable in the case of HLIs and Diploma institutions. This might pose a question: why was franchise provision in operation earlier than the locally affiliated education enterprise? It is simply because franchise provision is dominated mainly by developed countries, and the developed world is rich in research; consequently it can easily distinguish the future trends of business. Following the successful business of franchise provision, local education tried to take the market but failed conclusively: as they entered the market, the new trend of business in education arose.

The above discussions demonstrate that a number of factors have shaped the development of private HE in Bangladesh. The development of this sector emerged mainly in three phases. Initially, the sector grew primarily because of rising student demand and enrolment.

The second phase involved a focus on providing differentiated and specialised courses as way of satisfying demands for some form of international recognition, fulfilling various EFA requirements and also as a way of working within the budgetary constraints of the sector.

Furthermore, the expansion of private HE sector in Bangladesh has been informed overall by key developments on the global stage. These include the globalisation of HE and the increase influence of donor agencies within this process.

The third phase is primarily a political one. In recent years, the government has increasingly used the sector to gain political leverage and support. Thus the sector has tended to change priorities and focus depending on who is in power.

What are the motives of entrepreneurs for establishing private HE?

"Culturally, education declared to be for-profit is not still accepted in the country and so the self-announced philanthropists of private HE claim it as a non-profit making concern. In contrast, socially conferred and criticised for-profit private education is not only a big business concern but also an extreme profit-maker. Consequently, the entrepreneurs present education as a consumable product; as a result, the education of the country is being proven, not as a field of practising knowledge, but as a commodity."

(IPUHT)

Considering the points made by an academic, a careful investigation is demanded in order to identify the motives for establishing private HE. This discussion is divided into two parts. The first will explore the general motives and the second will examine specific aspects, focusing on the institutional framework (i.e. University, HE institution, Diploma institution).

General motives of the entrepreneur

The following general motives of entrepreneurs in establishing the private HE sector are discussed below.

Profit concern

In order to identify the pattern of an organisation (i.e. for profit, or not for profit), the quantity, language and style of advertisements published by various organisations in different media needs to be examined (i.e. newspaper, TV programmes, Internet). Advertisements in seven national daily newspapers⁵⁴ published within the last three months were studied in order to examine the business position of private HE. The language used in these advertisements evidently explains that the motivation of private education in the country is business-oriented. It is interesting to note that 66.66% of all commercials are published by private education and, within that percentage, 47.39% are published by the private HE sector. Each HE institution also

⁵⁴ The reasons for choosing seven newspapers: (1) each newspaper reflects a specific outlook; thus it is proven by earlier research that at least five newspapers in the country can cover a huge reader population; (2) Electronic media was not considered as the target student population mostly watch International/Indian TV channels, in which commercials are dominated by International/Indian business organisations.

publishes promotional materials (e.g. leaflet, poster, banner, prospectus). IKPV and IPVHST indicate that, on average, more than 35% of their total budget is allocated for commercial purposes of the institution. The above data is sufficiently significant to satisfy the *for-profit* issue of private HE. Additionally, IPVHT and IPVHST illustrate that although making profit is not an official agenda, the entrepreneurs in private HE are earning profit from their establishments. A member of support staff, with work experience in different private universities, made the following observation:

“Even if some private universities are not getting a sufficient number of students by which the universities can survive, they are still earning profit just because they are selling certificates as documents from an office located at the owner’s residential flat, not as an award achieved from a proper academic atmosphere.”

A few respondents have noted that the HE institutions which engage in selling certificates are the job centres for the unqualified relatives of the entrepreneurs.

Entrepreneurs want to be members of the ‘intelligentsia’

The history of the development of education in the country was introduced by Christian Missionaries and a group of *philanthropists* in different regions (i.e. Hazi Mohammed Mohsin, Brozola). Previously, known and respected people donated their land, money and other resources in order to establish schools to educate the local community. The HE institutions established earlier in both urban and rural areas were initially financed by these philanthropists. For instance, the BL College in Khulna, the BM College in Barishal, Horogonga College in Munshigonj, and the MC College in Sylhet were established by local philanthropists. The process still exists in remote regions but no longer in urban areas. Indeed, the status (in terms of social respect and regard) of the philanthropists is unparalleled. Traditionally, people with money want to be members of the intelligentsia and so contemplate becoming a philanthropist in order to become respected individual in society. Presently, a substantial number of people have become affluent very quickly, and they enjoy being known as the so-called philanthropists of HE in urban areas, which is why they began establishing private HE in the most commercial and cosmopolitan regions (IPVHT, IKPV).

Motives for establishing different types of private HE institutions

Having introduced two common motives for establishing private HE, I will now focus on institutional framework.

University

Studying in university education, either public or private, is still centralised within the urban population. Hossain (2003) points out that students studying in public universities, (with a special focus on Dhaka University), are from an urban background. Hossain does not focus on the rationale giving rise to this situation. Students who have a privileged background choose to study in public universities simply because a careful and expansive paternal participation in their education (for example, by being provided with private tuition and coaching by examiners) supports them in achieving good grades, not only in prerequisite qualifications, but also in admission tests. Also, there is always an influence in the selection of students, be it monetary, power or political bribes. The size of the privileged group is rapidly increasing after the independence of the country (IPUHT). Recently, a considerable number of the rural population have chosen to invest all their efforts to help their dependents receive better education. In these circumstances, a sizeable student population from a privileged background is rejected in the admission process of public universities, but they still desire an education. Entrepreneurs of private universities established during initial phases (i.e. North South University, Independent University, East West University) intended to provide university education in an elite ambience for their own children, alongside dependents of relatives and friends rejected by public universities, additionally earning money by providing the service to associated society (IGUDPVH, IKPV, IPVHST). However, operational experience of entrepreneurs affords them a quick comprehension of the market position, which motivates them to regard it as a business challenge. The government was motivated because these students were simply travelling to neighbouring countries to pursue education elsewhere once rejected by the public counterparts (IUGC, IMOIE).

The initial motive behind the establishment of private universities is to accommodate students from an elite economic background who are rejected by the rigid admission tests of public universities. Most students studying in the private universities established during the initial phases compete for the admission test of public universities. Conversely, most students studying in private universities

established during the final phases (especially during the fifth phase) do not compete in the admission tests of the public universities⁵⁵. Students studying in private universities established in the fifth phase believe themselves to be insufficiently prepared to compete in the admission tests conducted by public universities, or, in some instances, lack the prerequisite qualifications required in order to participate in the admission test of a public university (PVHS).

The above helps explain two motives related to the establishment of private universities:

Entrepreneurs of private universities established in the initial phases understood the market as left by the public universities, and so established private universities capable of working within the market; hence the motivation for earning profit. Entrepreneurs of private universities established in the final phases recognise that universities established in the initial phases are earning huge profit; hence they become motivated to establish private universities. Once in the market, they try their best to survive through hard competition with the universities established in earlier phases, or by creating an individual market targeting a specific student population. For instance, a few universities established at the fifth phase (i.e. BRAC University, Southeast University) are trying to be competitors of universities established in the initial phase (i.e. North South University, East West University). On the other hand, some of the universities (i.e. Daffodil University, BUBT) are *illegally* collecting students from the HLIs. Some universities (i.e. Northern University, World University of Bangladesh) are creating their own market by fulfilling differentiated demands or by accommodating students who are not qualified for university education.

HLI

Before identifying specific motives inspiring the establishment of private HLIs, it is important to remember that the common motives outlined earlier are the primary

⁵⁵ It is expected that students passing public university admission tests are competent to pursue a university education. Moreover, students rejected by public university admission tests should be competent to pursue a university education as public universities accommodate a very small proportion. However, it is important to calculate carefully the actual number of 'rejected' students competent to pursue a university education. Considering the above, the university student population can be divided into categories: Lucky brilliant - students with the to study at a public university in their desired subject. Brilliant - students having the chance to study at a public university. Competent - students with an adequate level of knowledge for pursuing a university education. Under-qualified - students who have neither a prerequisite qualification nor a certain level of knowledge for pursuing a university education.

interests in establishing the entire private HE sector. In order to distinguish the specific motives causing the expansion of private HLIs, the patterns of the entrepreneurs of the universities and HLIs need to be examined. The recent movement of the entrepreneurs to private HLIs also requires analysis.

IKPV, IPVHT and IPVHST show that business people, in association with the bureaucrats, politicians and academicians, have established the majority of the private universities. On the other hand, three types of entrepreneurs have been found in the context of private HLIs: (1) academicians of public counterparts, (2) semi-government college, and (3) young and promising education business people.⁵⁶

Academics of public counterparts

Initially, two private HLIs were established, in the first and second phases respectively, by the involvement of two academics, (professors at a public university). They had sound political relations with the party in power at that period. During the initial phases, these entrepreneurs had most of the prerequisites, (especially those of a political nature), apart from the money and infrastructure, required to obtain a private university licence. The private HLI business was fairly enjoyable; this motivated them to establish HLIs. Recently, due to internal mismanagement and political interference in the NUB's management, and an imprudent expansion of private universities, private HLIs working under the NUB could no longer compete in the marketplace. In critical circumstances, one of the HLIs is in the process of becoming a university, as the entrepreneur is a supporter of the present government (the entrepreneur in question is the wife of a minister). Therefore, it could be surmised that conducting business for the last few years makes her financially capable of establishing a private university, which is why her business path is altering according to her crucial need. She established a private HLI for a transitional period, whilst the provision of private institutions enjoyed a golden era and the university stipulation was initially experimental.

⁵⁶ From the mid-1980s onwards, recruitment to government office, especially university lecturer provision, has been politically biased, and thus a small percentage of challenging graduates from the victimized group began their career in the education sector by establishing private enterprises (i.e. HE institutions, coaching centres, educational consultancy, press and publication).

Semi-government colleges

Very few of the semi-government colleges offer a small number of programmes under the NUB, not on the basis of self-financing institutions, but on account of self-financing programmes, alongside their other programmes. All semi-government colleges had funding and infrastructure required for university approval. It is worth mentioning that providing registration for the operation of new private universities was almost stopped at the point of introduction of self-financing programmes by the semi-government colleges. However, it can be reasonably assumed that the circumstances forced them not to apply for approval as a private university. While the government again began to provide approval to private universities, one of them recently converted to university status; it may be that some semi-government colleges just wanted to expand their programme into technical and vocational programmes, where only the self-financing stipulation is available, or it could be that they do not have the requisite relationship with *politicians* and *bureaucrats* to convert to a private university whilst their self-financing programmes offered under NUB are in a critical position.

Young and promising education business people

The young people who are entrepreneurs of the HLIs established mainly in the latest phases are new graduates, or have a little business experience in private education (i.e. coaching centre, press and publication, computer training centre). It is also observed that mid-level bureaucrats and academicians are working in association with the young entrepreneurs by investing very small amounts of money, with their main investment being the provision of *logistical* support. In the present crisis of NUB programmes and the expansion of private universities, many of them have closed. The rest are surviving by providing diploma-level education under the BTEB following the constraints of financial ability and logistical support in providing approval as a private university. They established the institutions in the final and crucial phase, and as such had no opportunity to earn any profit. These entrepreneurs are trying to return to their original business or to enter the business of primary education but, because of their financial constraints, they are not sufficiently well-off to revive the enterprises.

Diploma institution

As mentioned earlier, the development of government-recognised private diploma level education is a very recent phenomena. Earlier, private diploma education was

provided in the fields of computing and information technology in collaboration with foreign providers (i.e. NITT, APTECH), mainly in urban areas for the school-leaver dependents of the elite. On the other hand, procuring public diploma education was popular amongst the low-income groups, less academically qualified⁵⁷. Observation by the donor agencies ensures that providing diploma-level education to the elite by franchise providers is not beneficial for development, as they are not working in the job market allocated for the diploma graduates (IPVHT). The lack of diversity within the programmes is also a constraint. Therefore, suggestions were made to establish recognised private diploma institutions, under the guidance of the government, in order to accommodate different regional students in a wide range of diploma programmes, and with reasonable tuition fees. The franchise providers were not interested in operating under government guidance. On the other hand, some of the non-recognised small local training institutions and coaching centres showed interest in establishing private diploma education to achieve recognition as an institution, which is more prestigious, and also good for earning profit.

Recently, a notable number of private HLIs have been working in the field of diploma education after the collapse of their NUB programmes, since offering a diploma education requires no new investment.

Franchise

Because of *diploma disease*, providing an education without awarding a degree is not socially acceptable. The educational history of the country shows that foreign providers always dominate the introduction of any new segment in education. The politicians and bureaucrats of the country fail to realise this trend soon enough. The country's administration and culture are prejudiced by 'red tape', which provides the opportunity for foreign providers to obtain these gains. However, the experience of the franchise provider in HE is harsh, as almost all of the foreign providers working in the country are not authentic educational enterprises in their country of origin⁵⁸. After

⁵⁷ It is worth noting that, studying public diploma education and having an academic year gap is not acceptable, but students having an academic year gap can enrol in private diploma education (either franchise or government recognised).

⁵⁸ To illustrate, an example from the web address perspective of approved educational enterprises in the industrialised world. In UK, USA, Australia and Canada, every approved educational enterprise uses (respectively); ac.uk, edu, edu.au, and edu.ca at the end of the web address (i.e. www.nottingham.ac.uk, www.truman.edu). The foreign educational enterprises working in Bangladesh use org, com, net etc. identifying them as business organisations rather than educational enterprises.

a certain time, they are obliged to stop their operation. This situation still exists in the country, which is why in Dhaka's HE market, ostensible new franchise providers are occasionally seen in operation. Many of the students admitted to franchise providers aim to move to a developed country, whilst in reality they have nothing to do but enrol. Whilst concealing their intentions, the motive of foreign providers, in establishing business organisations in collaboration with local counterparts, is to gain financial benefit from a market that has been ignored by their public counterparts.

Present situation of private HE

It is not an old story. Years ago, it was no surprise that students from rural areas had to travel along miles of village roads through heavy rain, or by risky boat journeys, to access primary and secondary education. Now, the situation has changed. Students in most of the regions of the country can access at least primary and secondary education without such difficulties. Expansion of the HSE is also well-diversified and accessible, whilst tertiary education is based in urban areas. The expansion of education in the country is still based on a quantitative, not qualitative basis, so accessing quality education in a good academy is highly competitive: 135 students compete for each place at a reputable academy. Conversely, most of the schools and colleges struggle to find students. According to a local newspaper, most Intermediate Colleges are giving bribes to the authorities of secondary schools to help them attract students.

As explained earlier in this chapter, because of birth control, the school age population is decreasing, so although accessing education is increasing, the total enrolment at every level of education (i.e. primary, secondary, and tertiary) is not increasing when compared with the net enrolment. Although there was a need to establish private HE institutions, the expansion of private institutions has been very rapid and imprudent, which confirms quantitative entity. It has been found that tertiary education institutions also face hard times when recruiting students.

Year	Total students Passed HSC	Number of Public University	Number of Private University	HLIs of NUB (Government and Semi Govt) ⁵⁹	Total Medical and Dental Colleges (Public & Private)	Professional Institution (Public/ Private)	Total Number Institutions of Higher Education
1997	229796	11	16	664	22 + 02	130	845
1998	220748	12	16	739	22 + 02	140	931
1999	290687	13	16	785	22 + 03	157	996
2000	181768	13	19	826	25 + 03	159	1045
2001	149358	17	22	868	25 + 04	159	1095
2002	145867	17	41	911	25 + 05	160	1159
2003	192713	21	52	1106	*		

Table 16: BANBIES Annual Report

Before analysing Table 16, it is important to note that all students who passed the HSC are not necessarily qualified to gain tertiary education. For instance, a student passing HSC, and securing third division is not officially qualified to pursue HE to Honours level. Although second division in HSC is an official prerequisite qualification to pursue HE, in my consideration, even with this minimum qualification, not all students are fit to pursue tertiary education as the standard of SE and HSE is deteriorating daily. Despite the total number of students passing HSC decreasing from 1997 to 2002 (with the exception of 1999), the expansion of HE institutions is increasing. The students who passed HSC somehow increased in 2003 (to avoid criticism, and to show academic performance, politicians and policy-makers product artificial results, which usually show that good progress has been made by the students).

A simple calculation is that, if a university has a minimum capacity for new enrolment of 450 (the accepted minimum capacity for a definitive university), and an institution or college has the capacity for new enrolment of, on average, 250, in 2002, the institutions of higher education would be able to accommodate $(26100 + 275250 = 301350)$ at least 301350, whilst 145867 students passed HSC. It is clear that most of the non-progressive institutions of HE face a crisis of new enrolment, so some of them

⁵⁹ Data of self-financing institution not available. Expansion of self-financing institutions, especially for the provision of Computer Science & Business Administration, is increasing.

are functioning without students or with having a marginal number only. Private universities/institutions are working in a market driven area, so the opportunity to gain students is higher than the general degree colleges offering Bachelor degrees. It should be remembered that, to study in a private institution of HE, students have to pay high tuition fees and thus the market for private HE is limited. In this situation, it is assumed that some of the private as well as the public institutions of HE have to stop their operation because of a crisis in student enrolment. Ceasing the operation of public and semi-government HE institutions will be slower, as they receive government funds. However, some of the self-financing HE institutions will not be able to continue operation. It is worth mentioning that, in 2004, more than 95% of private HLIs working under the NUB ceased functioning, and some of the private universities are about to stop operating.

Summary of the discussion

This chapter demonstrates that a few major factors are responsible for the expansion of the private HE sector. These factors are very similar to the findings of research from other developing nations as discussed in the literature review. However, student politics, political prejudice and cultural biases are unique to the Bangladeshi context. The overall conclusion is that to fill the gap, there was a need to establish the private HE sector. A monopoly always creates disadvantages, but I also argue that the huge and imprudent expansion creates some major disadvantages concerning private HE. Expansion of quality institutions is more important than mere expansion, and the function of HE institutions must be guided by a decent governance and regulatory approach.

Although increasing demand, political prejudice, prevailing circumstances and cultural norms influence the expansion of education, imprudent expansion forces some of the institutions to cease to function. Therefore, ultimately, existing demand determines the existence of the institutions.

Despite imprudent expansion, private HE plays both positive and negative roles in Bangladeshi HE, and addressing the negative impacts is a core function for governance and regulatory control. Therefore the impacts of the private HE sector will be discussed in the following two chapters. Subsequent chapters will explore the issue of governance and regulatory control.

Chapter 6: Current practices in private HE

Introduction

This chapter addresses the following research questions regarding current practice of the private HE sector in Bangladesh:

What kinds of educational programmes are offered?

Why are these kinds of programmes offered?

How are the course and curricula designed?

What is the quality of the course and curricula?

What is the target student population?

Who are the teachers?

One method of analysing these issues is to compare the public and private sectors. However, this presents difficulties. Public education is long established, whilst the private sector is relatively new. This gives the former the advantage of extended experience. Therefore, in this chapter, I will not attempt a full comparison. Instead, I will focus on certain attributes of the public HE sector that will inform the analysis of private HE. This will use fieldwork data rather than secondary literature as the main source of information.

What kind of educational programmes are offered?

The discussion that follows will encompass the educational programmes offered by different types of private institution in three parts:

Educational programmes offered by universities

Educational programmes offered by HLIs

Educational programmes offered by Diploma institutions

Educational Programmes offered by the universities

Before analysing the table (see: Appendix D), it is important to note that it does not present the data of all private universities. It does, however, include data from a significant number of universities located in different regions and established in

different phases. Some of the universities have no students, and therefore their offered subjects are not included.

Nature of degree offered

The table (see: Appendix D) shows that most private universities offer courses leading to a Bachelor degree. Courses leading to a qualification at Masters level are limited. Certification programmes are neglected. Although two universities claim (via prospectuses, leaflets and web-pages), to offer some certification courses (see: Appendix D), PVHT do not support the claims made by the universities. However, the entrepreneurs of these private universities insist that, because of an unwillingness of potential students to attend, they cannot offer the certification courses even though they have the necessary facilities (for example, staff, teaching materials). In this context, the IGUDPVH offers a view:

“Since we are buying education in exchange for a lot of money, there is no point in paying for a non-prestigious course and subject. These days, obtaining a degree in a good subject is not only important to get a job, but also essential in finding a suitable person for marriage, since educated communities are becoming larger. Moreover, the concept of a double⁶⁰ income is becoming popular. Thus, a husband and wife having the same kind of education can be engaged in the same profession⁶¹ which might be helpful to shape the same mentality and habit for family life.”

This statement suggests that the offer of a particular course in a private university may be prejudiced by the attitudes of the buyers i.e. they want to increase their income levels through self-employment, or employment additional to their main job.

Assessment of universities with global reputations depends on the quantity of research carried out, and the quality of such researches. Unfortunately, the private universities in Bangladesh have neither the scope for conducting research, nor the facilities for pursuing research degrees. However, some small-scale research in the business field, funded by local business enterprises, has recently been conducted by

⁶⁰ Earlier in Bangladesh, only the husband was the income-provider and the wife did not go to work. More recently, both husbands and wives work.

⁶¹ It is noticeable that there are many couples working in the same profession (doctors, engineers) in Bangladesh and they jointly run an organisation (i.e. private clinic, consultancy firm).

private universities. The purpose of such research is purely to help the funders identify further business opportunities.

Nature of subjects offered

Each of the private universities usually offer a Bachelor degree in Business Administration and Computer Science (see: Appendix D). Although different universities do offer other areas of study, the number of students enrolled onto other programmes is negligible. Students were randomly selected and asked to complete a questionnaire. Of these, 69.34% were studying Business (BBA and MBA) and 20.53% were studying Computing. IPVHT made a point:

“If you had conducted this research before September 11, 2001 (referring to the ‘9/11’ terrorist attacks), I am sure you would find more respondents studying Computer Science. However, the student market for Computer Science is now in decline as job opportunities in the local and international employment market for Computer Science graduates decrease. We are now renaming it (from Computer Science to Computer Science and Engineering) through minor restructuring, to bring in more students, but the response is unsatisfactory. I am sure the job market will rise again, and then there will be a shortage of computer professionals due to the low uptake recently.”

The above statement highlights two areas for concern: is it ethical to simply rename a subject without making corresponding and substantial changes to the course content and curricula? And, if the employment market for computer graduates does suddenly increase, how will the country⁶² handle the crisis without skilled computer professionals to call on?

The table at Appendix D shows that the World University offers more subjects at Bachelor level when compared to other universities. The East West University offers more subjects at a Masters level. However, IPVHS and IPVHT reveal that no students are enrolled onto some of the subjects offered. Universities include these subjects in

⁶² If this is of concern for international higher education, it demands an urgent discussion to find the reality.

their subject lists for two reasons: to give an image of themselves as a large university, and to attempt to gather students for different subjects.

The usual reason for pursuing a Bachelor level qualification is to find a new job. As a consequence, private universities concentrate on offering job-oriented subjects for their Bachelor programmes. Students studying for Masters degrees in private universities are generally professionals seeking to increase their level of income. An MBA or other professional degree not only increases income but also assists with promotion prospects. As a result, most of the universities working at post graduate level mainly provide an education in Business Administration. Two universities sponsored by religious groups offer Islamic studies, but enrolment in these is insignificant.

The above discussion indicates the nature of subjects and degrees offered by private universities. The following discussion will analyse subjects offered by HLIs and diploma institutions.

Educational programmes offered by HLIs

It is not necessary to provide a table of subjects offered by private HLIs as they are allowed to offer a few subjects through private provision. The HLIs working in collaboration with the NUB offer the following subjects, leading to a Bachelor or Masters level qualification, through self-financed provision:

Business Administration

Computing

Education (especially Teacher Education; B.Ed, M.Ed)

Law

Bank Management (Masters level only)

To offer a course in medicine or a Medical Science-related subject (e.g. Dentistry, Physiotherapy, Nursing), HLIs must have approval from the Ministry of Health, through the Directorate of Health. If a private university wishes to offer a course in Medicine or a related subject, it must follow the same procedure. Approximately 30 education enterprises offer a Bachelor⁶³ course in Medicine. It is noted that each of

⁶³ Masters level education in Medical Science is not available in public medical colleges.

the institutions offering a Bachelor level qualification in Medicine has exceeded its enrolment capacity.

Educational programmes offered by Diploma institutions

Institutions working in collaboration with the BTEB offer the following subjects through private provision. These lead to an undergraduate diploma qualification:

Computer Science and Engineering

Architecture

Textile Engineering

To conclude these subsections, a relevant quotation from an academic may be used:

“University is a place of exchanging and exercising knowledge in multi-disciplinary areas. Increasing knowledge of science contributes to the innovation of new technology. The widespread distribution of this emerging technology relies on increased knowledge of business and commerce. Conversely, increasing knowledge of arts and social science explores better and alternative paths to guide human life when confronting the challenges of the 21st century” (IPUHT).

Knowledge of science and business helps to achieve economic growth, whereas other areas of development, such as social freedom and perspective of human needs, are guided by awareness of the arts and social science. Thus, an education institution can only be classified as a university if it contributes to the pursuit of increased knowledge in the fields of Science, Business, Arts, and Social Science equally, and at different levels. As private universities offer few courses that lead to a Bachelor or Masters level qualification, the question is; should they be defined as universities? Instead, each private university should be considered as a small school or institution working in the field of Business and Computer Science. It could then be classified as a ‘Business School’ or ‘School of Computer Science and Engineering’.

According to the definition of an institution, it is acceptable for institutions to offer a few specialist subjects. As private institutions work in the fields of modern business concepts and science and technology, they must have modern and adequate facilities in order to offer these subjects. Chapter 7 will focus on this issue when discussing the advantages and disadvantages of the private HE sector.

Why are these programmes offered?

Given the nature of the inquiry, the data would be generically different. Entrepreneurs of private universities and institutions claim that they are contributing to the economic growth of the nation by offering such subjects.

"Employment is not only beneficial for the individuals, but is essential for the economic growth of the country." (IKPV)

On the other hand, academics claim that programmes offered by the private HE sector are incapable of generating new employment market (IPUHT, IPVHT). One academic made the following observation:

"The private universities, and many of the public universities, are not producing multi-disciplined 'commerce graduates' in the current climate. Rather, they are producing 'business graduates' majoring in different disciplines by providing the same education that was previously available to the commerce graduates. Therefore, the current graduates in accounting, marketing, finance, etc. are identified as business graduates. So these business graduates are working in a place which was earlier occupied by commerce graduates."

DR proves that the earlier job market in the scientific field was much larger. Recently, however, the number of jobs in commerce and business have increased, and students have been inclined to study in these areas. An academic states:

"Renaming a course⁶⁴ without making essential changes cannot distinguish the actual job market for business graduates and their competence in carrying out the job. Business graduates are not working in their own field: they are working in an area that would have been filled previously by Commerce graduates. Accordingly, offering Business Studies cannot open up new employment markets for the graduates."

⁶⁴ For example, the renaming of Bachelor of Commerce in Accounts as Bachelor of Business Administration – Accounting.

Academics also point out that the private HE sector offers courses that require less finance from the establishment. It provides incorrect and misleading information about the employment market (IPVHT, IPVHST, IPUHT). An academic offers an example in this context:

“The motive of offering the few available liberal arts subjects seems to be to provide window-dressing to present what is basically a business college as a university. The entrepreneurs of private universities also try to show, and create, an artificial job market for their graduates with the help of the policy-makers and key people from the public universities. The students of private universities don’t necessarily need to compete in a rigorous test to get a job. They are either joining Daddy’s business or getting a job through the high channels maintained by their parents.”

IPVHT and IPVHS feel that the private HE sector offers *market-driven* subjects. It is obvious that private universities will offer subjects that they can sell. However, the following discussion provides an in-depth analysis, and uncovers background information about subjects offered by private HE sector. Principally, it will discuss the areas of Business Administration and Computer Science.

Business Administration

There are two reasons for making a Business Administration course market-driven. One is the success of the Institution of Business Administration (IBA); the other is the employers’ perception, discussed here:

IBA success and response

The history of offering a Business Administration programme was inaugurated by the IBA. The IBA was established in 1966 in collaboration with the Indiana University, USA, with the objective of providing professional training in Business Administration. The IBA is an autonomous institution which works in association with the DU. It can take and implement internal decisions without interference from the DU. While the DU suffers huge ‘academic season jams’ (see Chapter 5.3), the IBA produces graduates in due time. The so-called ‘student politics’ do not exist in the IBA.

A Masters in Business Administration (MBA) has been offered since 1966, and a PhD was introduced in the late 1970s. IBA candidates were not only academically outstanding but also expert professionals. An unofficial study by Alam (2004) (unpublished) showed that, although the IBA has recently started providing access for raw graduates, competent professionals (particularly in engineering and the army), are still the dominant group studying for an MBA. Usually, MBA students are already in employment and have no need to look for new jobs. IBA students are members of a privileged group and, as such, maintaining clear business channels is easier for them. This target group of students has brought success⁶⁵ to the IBA. However, the IBA's strong commitment to its system of admission tests, a semester scheme within the academic calendar, a carefully-designed course curriculum, and teaching methods maintained in line with North American business schools, have also helped to achieve this success.

Due to the popularity of the IBA's MBA (post-graduate) programme, a market for a Bachelor in Business Administration (under-graduate) (BBA) has naturally emerged. The IBA launched its BBA in 1993, 27 years after its establishment. The IBA was late in offering the BBA (it has only offered it since 1993), and enrolment were too small to meet the demand. Using this opportunity, private universities established in the first phase began their operation by offering a BBA. Success in this field has led them to offer an MBA.

Employers' Perception

Business Administration degrees are now perceived as prestigious. People perceive 'Business Administration' to be an educational model imported directly from America, and employers believe that employing a business graduate will bring prestige with it. As a result, commerce graduates are neglected by the local job market.

An academic notes:

"The composition of business structure in the country is changing dramatically in favour of the small scale service-oriented businesses"

⁶⁵ The target student population enables the creation of more efficient manpower in business success as the students are classed as 'brilliant professionals'.

(financial institutions, product distribution, garment product sales⁶⁶), while factory-based businesses are gradually declining. This is raising the demand for innovative sales tactics. Accordingly, entrepreneurs are more concerned with employing a 'Jack of all trades' rather than an expert in a specific field."

This notion has changed the face of Bangladeshi HE, and many of the public universities have renamed their commerce faculties 'Faculty of Business Studies'. Private universities never had a Commerce faculty, but now have a School of Business. As a result, a dangerous trend is emerging: if all graduates become a 'Jack of all trades but master of none', who will be the specialists in any specific field (e.g. economics, banking and finance, marketing)? Ultimately, there will be a dearth of competent scholars.

Computer Studies

Another recent area of study in Bangladesh is that of education in Computer Science, becoming the most popular subject for students – and their guardians – until 2002 (IPVHT, IPVHS, IMOIE). DR shows that offering training in Computer Science and engineering began in the early 1980s, and was offered by local small training providers. By the mid 1980s, some of the international training providers in Computer Science (NITT, Oracle, Concept and Horizon), based originally in India, USA, Singapore and the UK, began offering diploma programmes. Initially they were popular, but because of 'diploma disease' a valid certificate awarded by an accredited university was needed (IHPU, IKPV, IBTEB).

The BUET was the first to recognise this. They began offering Masters level education, and some training programmes, in the faculty of Electrical and Electronics Engineering in the late 1980s. Computer Science was offered by a different faculty and was affected by different constraints (budget, recognition, the bureaucratic processes of decision making). Initially, students followed Masters level education and trained in Computer Science, and those admitted on to the programme were

⁶⁶ Though the manufacturing of garments requires skilled manpower, these positions are occupied by manual labour.

professionals⁶⁷. Such an education gave them extra benefits in the labour market as it became more difficult to find computer graduates.

Many of the people with degrees in Computer Science were educated abroad. It is interesting to note that, in the 1980s, many Bangladeshi academics switched from their original subjects (i.e. Chemistry, Physics, EEE, Mechanical Engineering), and studied Computer Science at HE level (PhD, MSc, MPhil) in an industrialised country. Students and academics who studied computing in the 1980s and 1990s in developed countries have since emigrated as skilled manpower. A significant number of students educated in Computing in Bangladesh have now settled abroad, through either work permits or migration visas, as they were considered skilled manpower.

This situation created a large market for the study of post- and undergraduate programmes in Computer Science. BUET responded to this impact in the early 1990s by establishing a new faculty; thereafter, other public universities also began offering the programme. The endeavours of the public universities were rather restricted: private universities' work in the area was ignored by their public counterparts.

Electrical & Electronics Engineering

Medicine and engineering subjects remain popular areas of study in Bangladesh. Electrical & Electronic Engineering (EEE) was the most popular job-oriented discipline within the engineering curriculum before the introduction of Computer Studies (DR). Earlier, private universities were also offering Computer Studies, a course that took a smaller proportion of the establishment's funds when compared with EEE⁶⁸. Following the decline in Computer Studies, the private universities began to offer EEE⁶⁹. This is partly due to pressure placed on the private universities by the UGC and the MOE to offer a wider variety of disciplines (IUGC, IMOIE).

Architecture

The urban community is increasingly attracted to the 'bright life' resulting from the impact of globalisation, westernisation and the rapid expansion of the private sector.

⁶⁷ Although other science graduates (Physics, Chemistry, Biology) began their professional careers after completing a Masters Degree, engineers in Bangladesh began their career after the completion of an undergraduate degree.

⁶⁸ To offer an EEE programme, universities need to make a huge investment in establishing laboratories, power-houses, links to the National Grid etc.

⁶⁹ Some call it Electronics and Telecommunications or Electronics and Telecommunication Technology. These names are being given in order to attract students.

The old traditions and heritages are increasingly missing from urban life. Population increase also imposes the maximum utilisation of land and space. The rich no longer live in mansions – they live in luxurious flats in tower blocks. In response, businesses in housing provision, especially private businesses, are growing fast (IKPV, IHPU).

Initially, BUET was the only institution to offer a Bachelor level education in architecture (DR). A few public institutions then began to offer Bachelor and Diploma level architecture in the late 1980s (DR). However, the scope for pursuing an education in architecture in the public sector is limited. This has motivated the private sector to work in this field as well.

Medicine, Medical Technology and Pharmacy

There once existed a popular Bengali proverb: “*amar chaley boro hoye dactor/engineer hobey.*” (which translates as “My son will be a doctor/engineer when he becomes an adult.”)

Earlier, parents living in rural areas dreamt that their sons would become doctors and provide medical support for the poor villages. History shows that many of those who became doctors did not value the dream of their parents (IPUHT, IPVHT). Nowadays, more wealthy parents want both sons and daughters to be doctors, and to lead prosperous lives (IGUDPVH, IGUDPUH).

Doctors with or without a full-time job, in either the public or the private sector, may be involved in private practice. This enables them to increase their income, so the students and their guardians are inclined to invest greater amounts of funding, time and effort in order to pursue an education in Medical Science (IGUDPVH, IGUDPUH, IPVHS, IPUHS).

In earlier years, thirteen public medical colleges were mainly responsible for the provision of education in Medical Science, in addition to three public Dental colleges. The steadily growing private sector also contributes to Medical Science education. It is important to note that the demand for doctors, dentists and pharmacists is interrelated, and that the private HE sector works in these fields.

Agriculture

In earlier years, only one public university – the Bangladesh Agriculture University – produced ‘*Agri*’ graduates. Recently, a few of the public institutions that converted to universities began to produce *Agri* graduates (DR). Earlier, only a few public diploma institutions produced *Argi* diploma graduates (DR).

The job market for Bachelor level *Agri* graduates is fairly large. They are taking advantage, as do the doctors and engineers, of the BCS examination. A silent revolution has taken place recently in the development of the agricultural sector (pisciculture, horticulture, livestock), as self-employment is offered to *Agri* graduates, particularly the diploma graduates (IBTEB, IKPV). Now people from lower income groups are pursuing an education in agriculture as, traditionally, those with a lower income will study for a diploma in order to enter the job market quickly. In addition, they are unable to meet the high cost of education at higher levels, and diploma level education in agriculture meets their needs. Meanwhile, wealthier groups want to settle in official jobs, so they pursue Bachelor level programmes in agriculture. As a result, private universities and diploma institutions have begun to offer Bachelor and Diploma programmes in agriculture.

Law

Even though most of the public universities now offer courses in Law, the subject was once a neglected area, rarely made available. Generally, exceptional students did not study Law. Nowadays, however, the employment market for graduates of any field in Bangladesh remains small in comparison with the number of graduates produced, and students are obliged to consider self-employment (IHPU, IKPV, IPVHT). A Law degree helps students be confident with self-employment. In addition, law and order in Bangladesh continues to degenerate – so lawyers enjoy good earnings (IGUDPVH, IGUDPUH, IPVHT). Consequently, some of the private universities/institutions offer Law.

Textiles

The garment and leather sectors are respectively first and second earners of foreign currency for the country. Under the DU, there is one ‘Textile’ and one ‘Leather Technology’ institution. Document review shows that there is a critical shortage of

textile engineers and leather technologists. Offering courses in these fields is expensive and there is a requirement for industrial placement. Although private universities are yet to offer courses in textile and leather technology, a few of the private diploma institutions offer textile engineering courses without providing the necessary facilities or industrial placements required.

Teacher Education and Library Science

To teach in a Bangladeshi school, a teacher does not necessarily need a degree in Education. Teachers join without completing teacher training, as it is not considered important. However, teachers at government and semi-government schools do gain benefits if they have Teacher Education training, and as such are motivated to take the training.

The few publicly-managed Primary Teacher Training Institutions (PTTI) and Teacher Training Institutions (TTI) are insufficient to meet demand. They do not provide training for secondary school teachers (DR). It is also worth noting that some teachers who attend Teacher Education training may not be particularly attentive, as the assessment and examination process is not difficult (DR). Teachers in training are entitled to paid leave, so they may have other jobs – attendance on the training programmes conducted by private institutions is very relaxed.

Every school and college has a compulsory post for a librarian, even though many schools (especially those located in rural areas) do not even have a library. They may just have a few shelves on which books are kept. To be a librarian, a degree in Librarianship is not essential, but holding the degree does bring extra benefits and so, librarians study Library Science. Many of the institutions working under the NUB offering Teacher Education and Library Science, located in district towns.

Influence of NGO and religious groups

The activities of NGO influence private universities to offer few courses. Some private universities established by NGO offer courses related to developmental studies (Education and Development, Environmental Studies) to satisfy their national and international donors. NGO, a growing employment agency, is also experiencing increased growth in Bangladesh. Some of the universities established by religious groups offer few religious education programmes to meet demands that are little-

differentiated. In addition, some of the universities add subjects which they do not actually deliver, ostensibly to extend their subject list.

Issues related to Bangladeshi HE and employment patterns give grave concern which need addressing. It is evident that profession-based jobs must be occupied by professional staff trained specifically for them. For example, a '*medical cadre*' must be occupied exclusively by doctors, but graduates in medicine can work for other cadres⁷⁰ (i.e. in administration, policing, foreign affairs, taxation). In addition, obtaining high scores in scientific subjects is easier when compared to the areas of Social Science and the Arts. Thus science graduates, especially doctors and engineers, take advantage of BCS examinations. Moreover, every sector, enterprise and organisation (i.e. the army, banking and industry) needs its medical and engineering professionals, and therefore the Bangladesh Public Service Commission (BPSC) creates an artificially larger job market for science graduates, specifically for medical and engineering graduates. In addition, the most profitable opportunity for science graduates, especially for doctors, is to enter private practice, either full- or part-time. However, I argue that, if science graduates employed within the public sector are also busy working in the private sector, who provides the essential support for the enormous number of poor people who depend on the public services?

The BCS examination is a place for competition among Science, Social Science and Arts graduates. Graduates in the same subject do not generally compete against each other to acquire the professional job for which they have been trained. A graduate who has studied Arts or Social Science does not essentially compete with other graduates who have studied the same subject in the BSC examination. Is Bangladeshi HE able to produce an expert capable of doing the job – or is it producing a graduate with a basic education? A further question arises: do jobs in Arts and Social Science of the BCS require a person to have a basic education, or to be a specialist?

Many of the researchers (Psacharopoulos and Patrions, 2002, Murphy and Welch 1992, Card, 2001, Rouse, 1999,) working in the area of 'Return to Investment in Education' aim to discover the ratio and equation of total earnings of graduates, and

⁷⁰ But these jobs should be allocated to Arts and Social Science graduates.

the total investment required to produce⁷¹ graduates in order to calculate the *return to educational investment* (see: Psacharopoulos and Patrinos, 2002, Harmon and Walker, 1999, Hartog, et. al., 1999, Appleton, 2000,).

To have doctors and engineers working in different career areas (those of policing, administration and foreign affairs, for instance) proves that investing in the production of these graduates is ill-advised. I further argue that the earnings of a graduate employed in an area for which they are not trained and not proficient, does not constitute an actual 'return to investment in education'. It also forces the nation to have a society of unemployed trained graduates. It can be seen that investing large amounts of money in the production of Science graduates does not make sense if they then work in the field of social science or the arts. Finally, we need to consider whether education creates jobs, or if education should be provided according to the needs of the job market?

How are course and curricula designed?

Before focusing on the procedures maintained by private HE to design course and curricula, I shall discuss general practice in Bangladeshi HE, especially practice maintained in public HE. Public universities established during the time of East Pakistan and Bangladesh follow virtually the same course and curricula put into place by DU during the British period (DR, IHPU). Subjects offered more recently (Business, Computing and IT) have been designed with the assistance of international experts, especially American academics. Modern courses always need to be brought up-to-date and the course curricula followed by Bangladeshi public universities is in urgent need of development. However, an HLI director expresses his concern:

"Incompetence, involvement with other interests such as private coaching and consultancy, laziness, the bureaucratic process, shortage of academic staff and lack of intention by Bangladeshi academics are primarily responsible for outdated courses and curricula."

A private university entrepreneur observes that:

⁷¹ It is interesting to note that, in order to produce a graduate, investment in the school is not the total investment required, as students also enjoy subsidised national and international facilities (i.e. subsidised transports and cafeterias).

“While British universities constantly develop course content to reflect the challenges of the 21st century, Bangladeshi academics and politicians blame the ‘colonial’ courses for lack of development – without bringing them up-to-date. ‘Colonial course and curricula are hindering the development of our education’ – the statement is an emotional marvel to Bangali used by academics and politicians in order to avert criticism.”

IPUHT, IPVHT and IKPV agree that ‘colonial’ (outdated) courses and curricula are not appropriate for the 21st century, and are concerned as to why they have yet to be replaced. It is a fact that policy-makers have recently attempted to bring about change to Bangladeshi HE, especially in the design of the recently-offered courses. Each sector – Education, Health, Transport, Defence, Law and Order – aims to follow the American system, particularly with regard to practising the *code of conduct* which would replace the colonial system. Education policy-makers are concentrating more on introducing American courses and curricula for Bangladeshi HE.

Having said that, the discussion which follows will include the procedures in designing the course and curricula for private HE sector in four parts:

1. Procedures maintained by private universities
2. Procedures maintained by NUB’s HLIs
3. Procedures maintained by BTEB’s institutions
4. Procedures of institutions working in the field of medical science

Universities

Regrettably, a procedural guideline for course design provided by the UGC is not practised by private universities.

According to the UGC’s regulations, each private university must have a curriculum committee to be responsible for the design of, and to moderate, the course (IUGC. Also see: Proposed University Act).

Once the committee has designed a new ‘curriculum’, or moderated a course and curricula, it should be submitted to the UGC for approval through the vice

chancellor. Once the UGC grants approval, the university is free to offer the course to students.

The IUGC said:

“Many of the private universities don’t wait for, or bother with, UGC approval – they provide the education without the requisite approval. The corrupt UGC officials may assist with providing verbal approval. The corrupt officials fail to take action against universities that don’t practice the Code of Conduct.”

Conversely, IKPV and entrepreneurs at private universities state:

“UGC is a bureaucratic and corrupt organisation, so the files have to pass through much red-tape and the irregularities practised within the UGC. If they wait for the UGC’s approval, their students cannot be brought up to date with the course curricula in time’.

A quick look at the promotional material of any Bangladesh private university may well confuse the reader. Pictures of historical monuments belonging to the developed nations of the world (the Statue of Liberty, Harvard University, the British Houses of Parliament, the British Museum) which have been inserted into the brochure, may cause the reader to feel, at first, that he or she is reading about a university in the United States of America or the UK. IKPV claim to design the course and curricula with the help of academics from North America, and that the standard of their courses is equivalent to that of the North American universities. IPVHT and IPVHST falsified claims made by their IKPV. They stated that academics working within the university (mainly the Dean of School) exclusively design courses and curricula. However, they emphasise that the North American system is followed. In this context, the following quotation from an academic with experience of working with various private universities and well-known as an expert in designing a Business Administration programme to North American standards is relevant:

"I am very glad to inform you that I have designed the course and curricula of the Business Administration programme for at least eleven private universities. My graduate and undergraduate study in a reputed US university gives me a solid foundation in Business Administration which helps in designing the course curricula of the Business Administration programme. However, the most important thing is that the Internet helps me a lot in designing and in moderating the course. I regularly browse the web-pages of North American Universities to keep up-to-date and, accordingly, I design and moderate the course and curricula. It is frustrating that public universities following outdated courses don't value me, but private universities realise my potential."

The statement clearly indicates the procedures maintained by private universities in order to design courses, as this academic designs course curriculum for eleven universities. Courses are usually designed by the Dean of School, but in many cases the dean delegates the task for compilation of data and information from the USA universities (IPVHT).

NUB's HLIs

All NUB's HLIs, either public or private, must follow the same course and curricula designed for a specific subject (for example, Computing, Business) and programme (Bachelor, Masters) supplied by the NUB (INUB). The NUB does not employ its own academics to design, moderate and assess course curricula, especially for subjects offered in private provision (IKPV, IPVHT, IPVHS). Moreover, the NUB does not receive help in designing course curricula from the academics working with their affiliates. The NUB employs academics from public universities, especially from DU and BUET, to design, moderate and access the course curricula. This explains why some NUB courses are very similar to those followed by DU and BUET.

Some academics at DU and BUET are also owners of private HLIs, and are often employed to prepare NUB courses and to assess student examination papers. A private HLI entrepreneur emphasises that:

“By taking these opportunities, the public university academics who own private institutions provide good grades to their own institutions’ students.”

Entrepreneurs are concerned about the outdated courses and curricula followed by private HLIs. The president of the *Association of Private Higher Learning Institution* illustrates the general situation:

“Public universities are not our competitor. We are competing with the private universities, as we provide Bachelor and Masters level education through self-financing provision. Although most of the private universities don’t provide good education, they do provide a good certificate and transcript to their students, where they show that the students have studied a modern and timely course and curriculum. Students in the private HE sector are not essentially greedy for a better education, but they and their guardians deserve a certificate with a good grade, and a transcript indicating the modern course studied. As we don’t prepare the course curriculum, it follows that we don’t assess the examination papers of the students; thus we are unable to meet the demands of the students and guardians. This results in us losing our market.”

This statement indicates that private HLIs are suffering from constraints revolving around the design of the course, and its examination and assessment. However, it can also indicate that the private HE sector is generally more concerned with gaining the student market rather than with providing a good education for the local community. The moderation of a course and its curricula is a ruse to enrich the contents of the transcripts not essentially taught to students of the private HE sector.

BTEB Institutions

All diploma institutions working in collaboration with the BTEB have to follow the same course and curricula designed for a specific subject supplied by the BTEB (IBTEB, IMOIE). The BTEB recently formed a team to be responsible mainly for the design and moderation of the course and curricula. Members of the team are academics at public diploma institutions; however, some personnel working with the

BTEB are also members of the team. The academics of private affiliates of BTEB are not given the opportunity to design, moderate and access the course curricula. Both public and private institutions follow the same course and curricula. Private universities are not competitors of private diploma institutions and do not suffer the constraints that concern the NUBs HLIs, even though they follow an out-of-date course content.

Institutions of Medical Science

All institutions working in collaboration with the Directorate of Health have to follow the same course and curriculum designed for a specific subject and programme provided from the Directorate of Health. Members of the course and curriculum team are BCS cadres who work mainly with public hospitals and medical colleges. The academics of private institutions are not given an opportunity to design the course curricula.

Both public and private medical institutions have to follow the same course and curricula, which is outdated. An entrepreneur of a private medical institution said:

“If we were provided with up-to-date course material from the Directorate of Health, we could produce highly skilled medical graduates. This would be useful for the economical development of the country, as medical graduates have more opportunity to work in developed countries.”

What is quality of the course and curricula?

Before analysing this issue, I must draw attention to some limitations. As a researcher of educational management, I have limited knowledge about the design of course and curricula for programmes such as Business Studies, Computing Studies, and Pharmacy. However, studying Curriculum Development has provided me with an adequate understanding of the debates surrounding course and curricula development.

Researchers in the field of curriculum development (Crossley and Garrett, 1997, Crossley and Murphy, 1994, Lewy, 1991, and Rowntree, 1981) argue that a good curriculum must have the following characteristics:

- It must be modern and up-to-date
- It must have a national goal in order to cope with both international perspectives and confront the challenges of the 21st century
- It must be of an international standard but easy to follow and suited to the local students at whom it is targeted
- It must be completely capable of producing skilled graduates for local and international job markets
- It must have a comparative content, where a comparison should be made between developed, developing and local perspectives which can firmly explore the debate within the subject. These will help the graduates of developing nations to seek the most appropriate system for their country and to make significant changes gradually in order to reach the modern standard.

The discussion which follows will evaluate how each of these common characteristics of a good curriculum is valued by the private HE sector. Discussion is divided into three parts. The first part explains university provision. The provision of the institution is explored in the second, while the third explores the general concerns related to the design and moderation of course curricula.

University

IKPV claim that the universities provide modern courses and curricula to North American standards. IPVHT agree, but point out that the students attending are incapable of coping with the heavy workload of American-standard courses. They say that they do not have the strong academic foundation required to follow the more difficult subjects, for example, Computing, Business and Pharmacy; thus many of the private universities do not follow the official course too closely. IPVHT also point out that the majority of students in the private HE sector are not sufficiently competent to pursue Bachelor and Masters level courses in an 'easier' subject (Islamic studies, Bangla Literature, Media Studies), let alone in more difficult subjects (Pharmacy, Engineering or Business).

Some academics in Business Administration illustrate an important point. They are concerned about the lack of competence amongst graduates studying American courses. Since the country has been following colonial rules and regulations for different course areas, (e.g. Corporate Law, Taxation, Income Tax, Labour Law),

graduates of Business Administration who have been taught rules and regulations applicable in the USA will be incompetent in related jobs. This results in a clash between older and newer graduates, which is affecting the work atmosphere. A business graduate from a reputed private university explains the situation:

“After graduating from the NSU, I applied for jobs in the public sector. I failed to obtain one, as graduates who had studied the colonial course and curriculum were examiners on the interview boards. Finally, I joined a nationally reputed private organisation where IBA graduates are in the majority. Graduates of IBA are familiar with the American and colonial system and can easily cope with all situations. I can adjust to the IBA graduates but cannot cope with other graduates who have studied in public universities. I feel uncomfortable when I am assigned to the public sector for different tasks.”

It is highly ambitious for private universities to provide courses which cover the contents of comparative perspectives of a subject as there is a lack of good students and a shortage of competent academics (IKPV, IHPU). However, without providing a course curriculum of comparative content, it is not possible to produce dynamic graduates in the area of subjects only recently made available, who will be capable of introducing the radical changes needed to replace the colonial system.

Institutions

Although the course and curricula of recently established subjects offered by the private institutions is prepared in accordance with the North American system, the IKPV, IPVHT and IPVHS are concerned about its modernisation. The NUB and BTEB usually follow the same course and curricula for several years without moderating them. The IKPV of HLIs claim that, as they are working under controlling agencies (NUB, BTEB, Directorate of Health), they have to provide an education according to the course and curricula supplied. On the other hand, private universities prepare modern courses and curricula which they then fail to follow, conferring degrees without providing the necessary education. The ex-chairman of BISE, presently working at a private HLI, makes the following observation:

“It’s a shame to say that the quality of Bangladeshi education at every level (primary, secondary, tertiary) is declining day by day. I agree that a lot of corruption is practised by the private institutions, but their controlling bodies force them to be corrupt. However, compared with private universities, corruption in the private institutions is negligible. Since private institutions are directly controlled and monitored by the boards or the NUB, students at least attend each examination to obtain a certificate. The examination centres are supervised by external invigilators so students need to have some knowledge. But it is very sad that most of the private universities are conferring degrees without providing an education.”

Private HE is expanding in a competitive atmosphere. Universities and institutions are always trying to find better sales techniques. Providing a study programme with a moderated course curriculum is one of the best sales tactics, and the institutions are lagging behind.

General concerns of course curricula

IPVHT and IPUHT place heavy emphasis on teaching methods, the competence of academics and the student when following modern courses, assessments and examinations. They believe that these factors are not only important in designing a modern course, but are also essential in moderating the course in anticipation of future requirements. The assessment and examination system of Bangladeshi HE is subject to rigorous criticism.

“Students with Bangladeshi HE have no need to write assignments. They just appear for examination. They are also provided with a selected short list of questions that will appear in the examination. Answers to the questions will have been prepared by the tutors. Students simply need to memorise the answers to the tutor’s questions: students require greater skill in submitting data to memory than analytical and inventory capacity.

The student who can perfectly their tutors' ideas, having memorised them, is the best student." (IPUHT)

Within the scope of assessments and examinations, a student in Bangladeshi HE cannot be nurtured as an innovator, and such circumstances lead to an academic atmosphere without research. Should a student write a paper with the topic related to the subject, it helps if the ideas are explored. If students are assigned a specific topic, they must do some research to include information and data. Tutors are up-to-date with the subject content, and with local and international debate of the subject, in order to direct their students. These situations provide much information about issues related to the subjects' local and international debates. As such, there is scope to provide tutors with sufficient information to moderate the course and curricula to meet future demand, and also motivate policy-makers to address problems which may be experienced within the different sectors.

I now draw out two issues which need to be considered by policy-makers and academics. First, discussions indicate that allegiance is shifting from the British to the American system for course and curriculum design. Bangladeshi HE appears to be replacing the British system with another 'colonial' system – the American system. In such circumstances, I suggest that a simple shift of allegiance from one philosophy (British) to another (American) cannot adequately meet local demand.

Secondly, prepared courses and curricula are not strictly adhered to by private universities. It is quite obvious that if a sector allows access to non-competent students, it becomes impossible to ensure quality control: if the students themselves are aware that it is not too important to follow the course and curricula in order to gain a degree, the academic atmosphere degenerates accordingly.

It is unethical for any sector to operate within a system of deception, let alone the education sector. An important question is raised: if the students are misled by the deception of the university, how, then, is their own moral character to be developed?

What is the target student population?

Year	Total Private Universities	Total Students Enrolled	Average Number of Students Enrolled in a Private University
2000	18	32791	1822
2001	23	27245	1185
2002	38	34432	906
2003	52	46080	886

Table 17: Source – UGC annual reports

Table 17 confirms that the average size of the private HE sector's student population is relatively small when compared with standard universities (a few universities have fewer than 10 students) (see: Appendix E). It also illustrates that student enrolment at the private universities is not increasing greatly, with the exception of the year 2003.

There was a considerable increase in enrolment in 2003 as some of the recently established private universities enrolled students illegally (by an improper system of credit transfer). For example, a student studying in the first year in a HLI was offered the opportunity to study in the final year in a private university. The movement of students from HLIs to the private universities resulted in the collapse of private HLIs, and a huge decline in enrolment in HLIs, from 15000 to 1253. It is important to note that the transformation of two HLIs into private universities also increases the enrolment in university provision.

The following discussion is divided into two parts: the first will answer two questions concerning private HE overall. These are:

What is the academic quality of students targeted?

What is the family background of students targeted?

The second part will focus on the institutional frame (University, HLI, franchise), and will answer the following questions:

What is the target student population for a private university?

What is the target student population of a private institution?

What is the target student population of a franchise provider?

Academic quality of students targeted by Private HE

The literature suggests that economically well-off students choose private HE when rejected by public institutions. The question, "Is public Higher Education the first preference for students?" was asked of three groups: PUHT, PVHT and PVHST. The findings are presented below:

Public HE Teachers

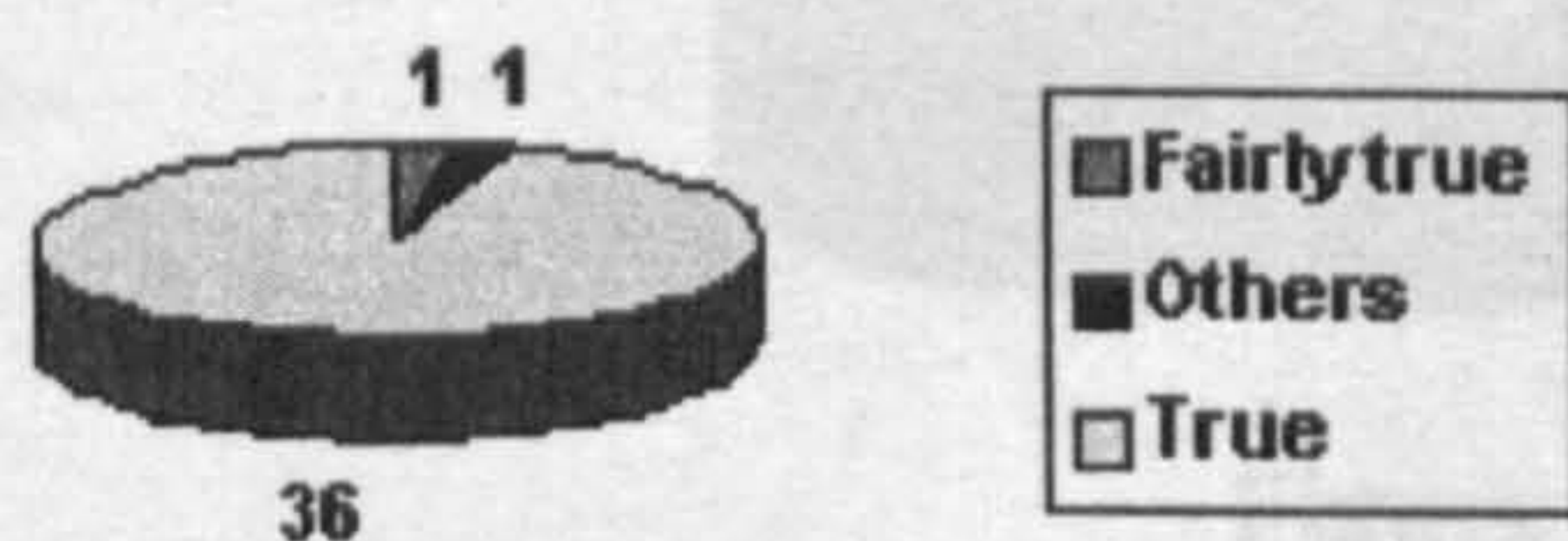


Figure 11

Private HE Teachers

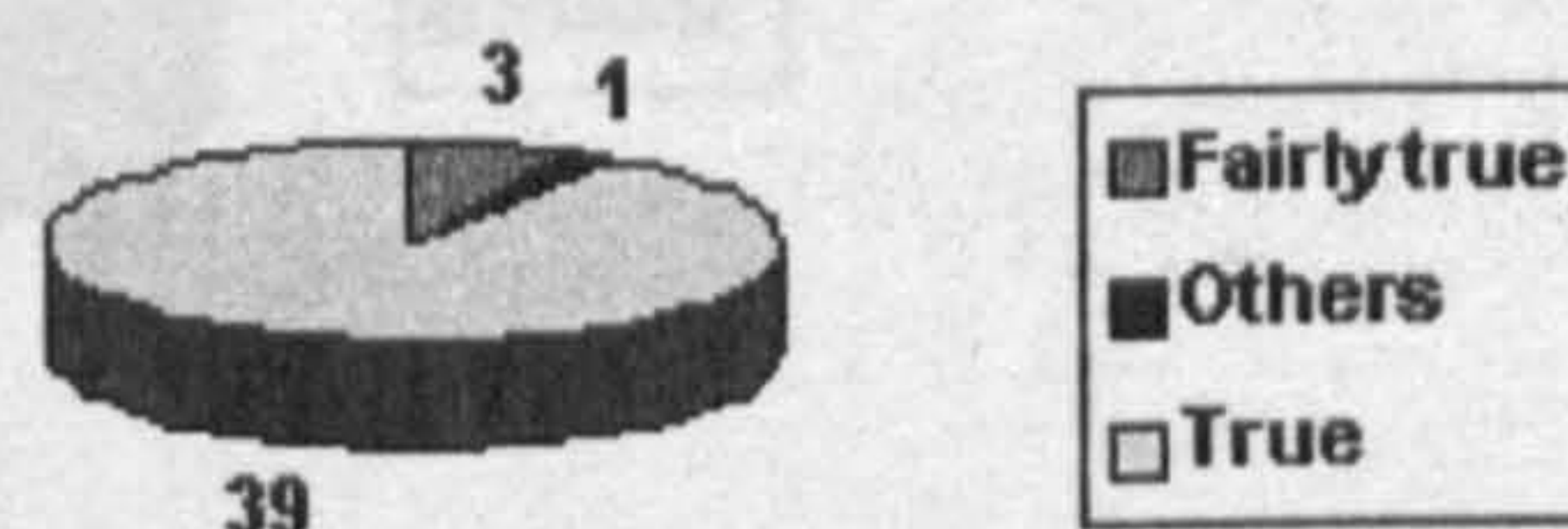


Figure 12

Private HE Staff

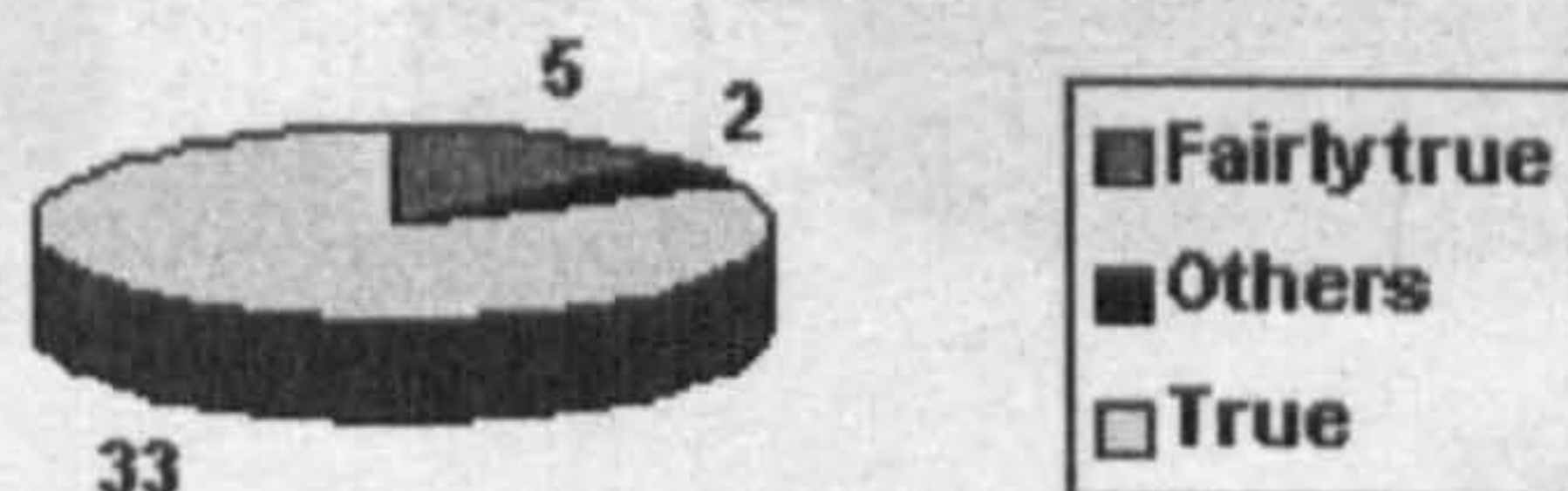


Figure 13

The results indicate that public HE is indeed the first choice for students, according to the perception of the academics. This fact was critically examined by the questionnaires given to PUHS and PVHS.

Of PUHS, 100% said that they were more interested in studying in a public university (Figure 14). Of these, 19.14% were studying their preferred subject (Figure 15), 41.30% were studying at their preferred public university (Figure 16), whereas less than 1% were studying both at their preferred university and their preferred subject. However, a reasonable number of economically well-off students had not considered private HE in which to study their preferred subject, even when having to study a less popular subject at a non-preferred public institution. To understand the

influence of tuition when choosing a university, students were asked that, if they had been financed by an organisation, would private HE be their first preference? No-one opted for private university; rather, 84.21% expressed opinions in favour of the public institutions, while the rest expressed no preference. However, 71.79% of PUHS might consider the private sector if, after being rejected by a public university, they were financed by an organisation to study private HE. According to this analysis, it is understandable that students are more inclined to study in the public university.

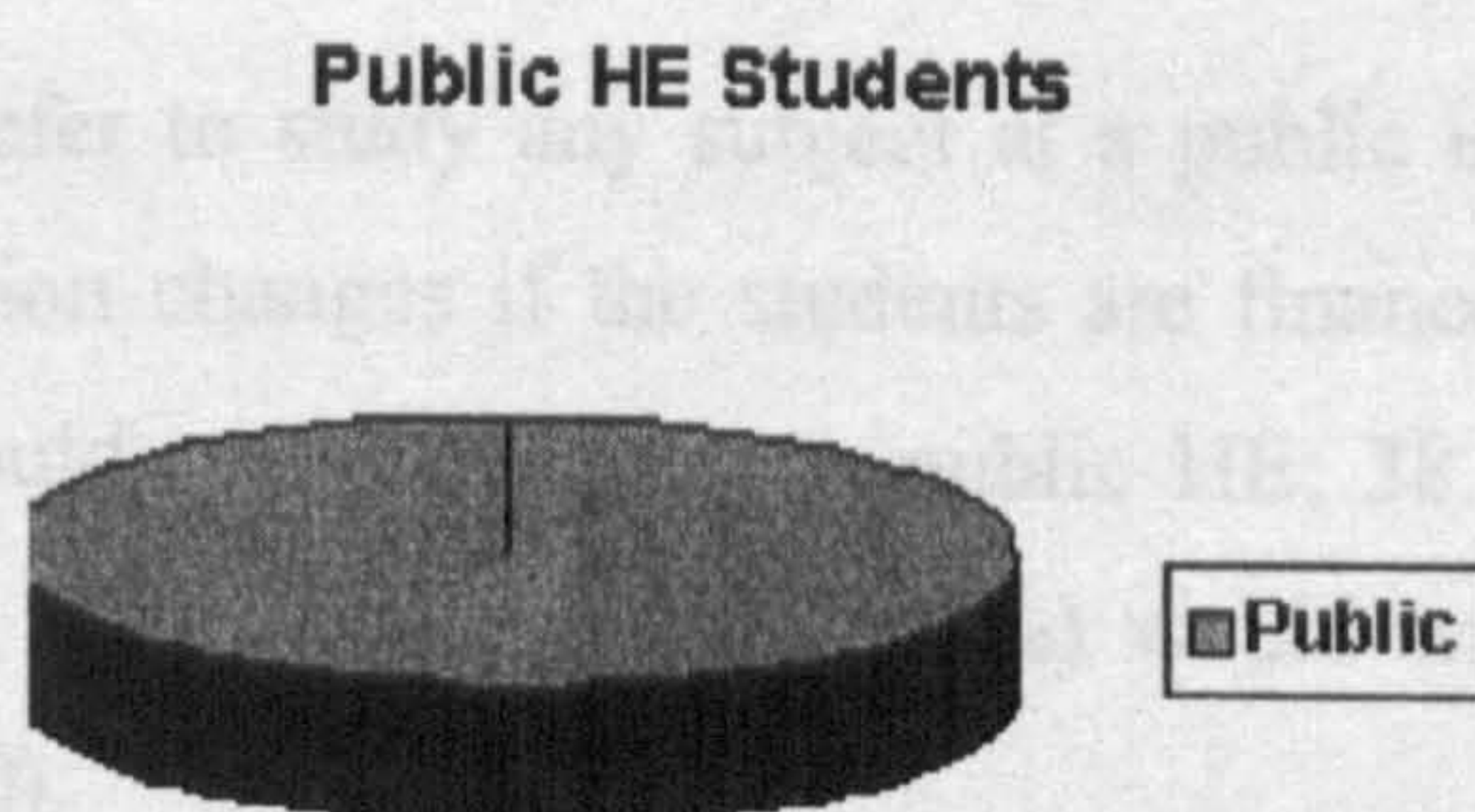


Figure 14

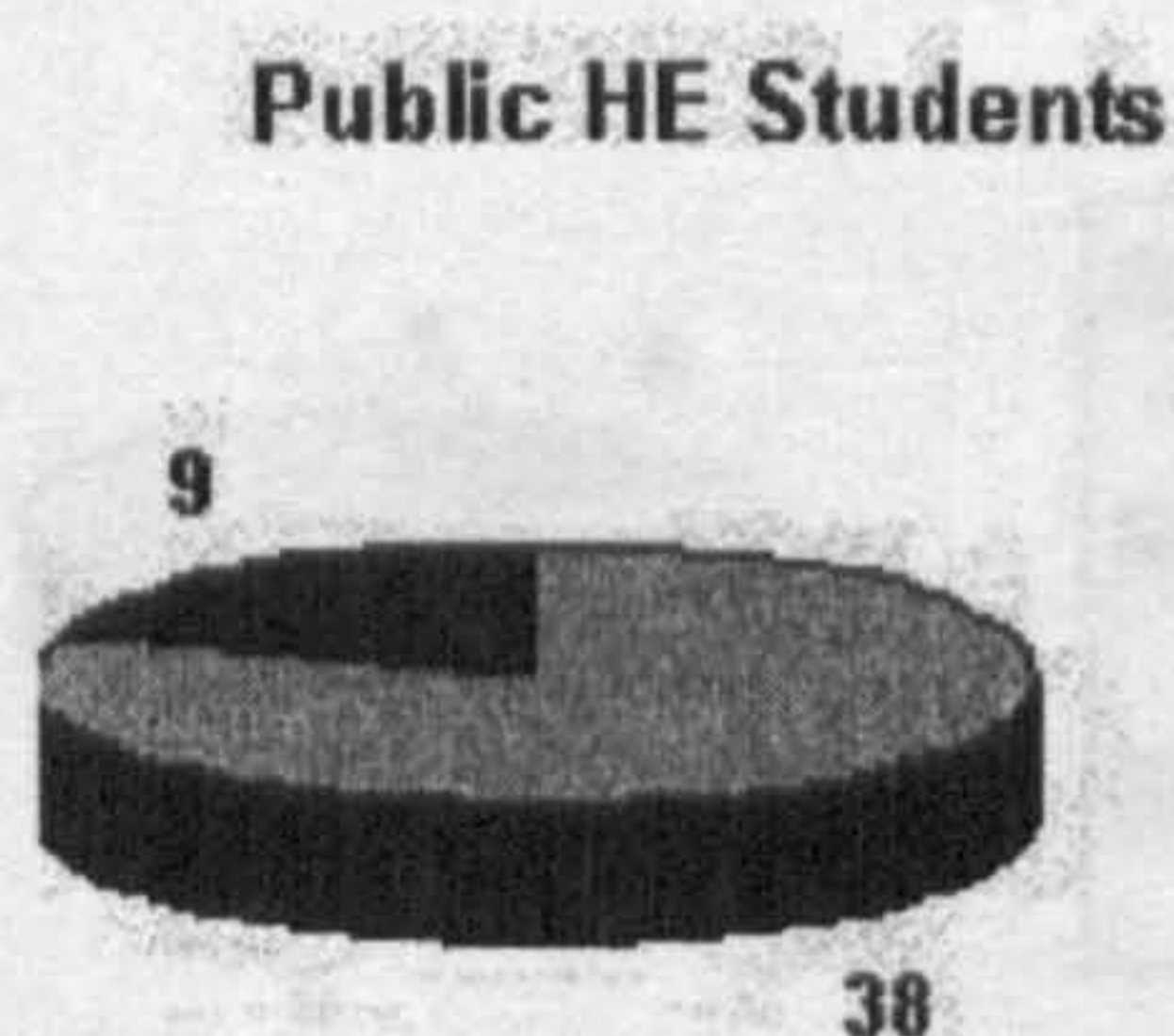


Figure 15

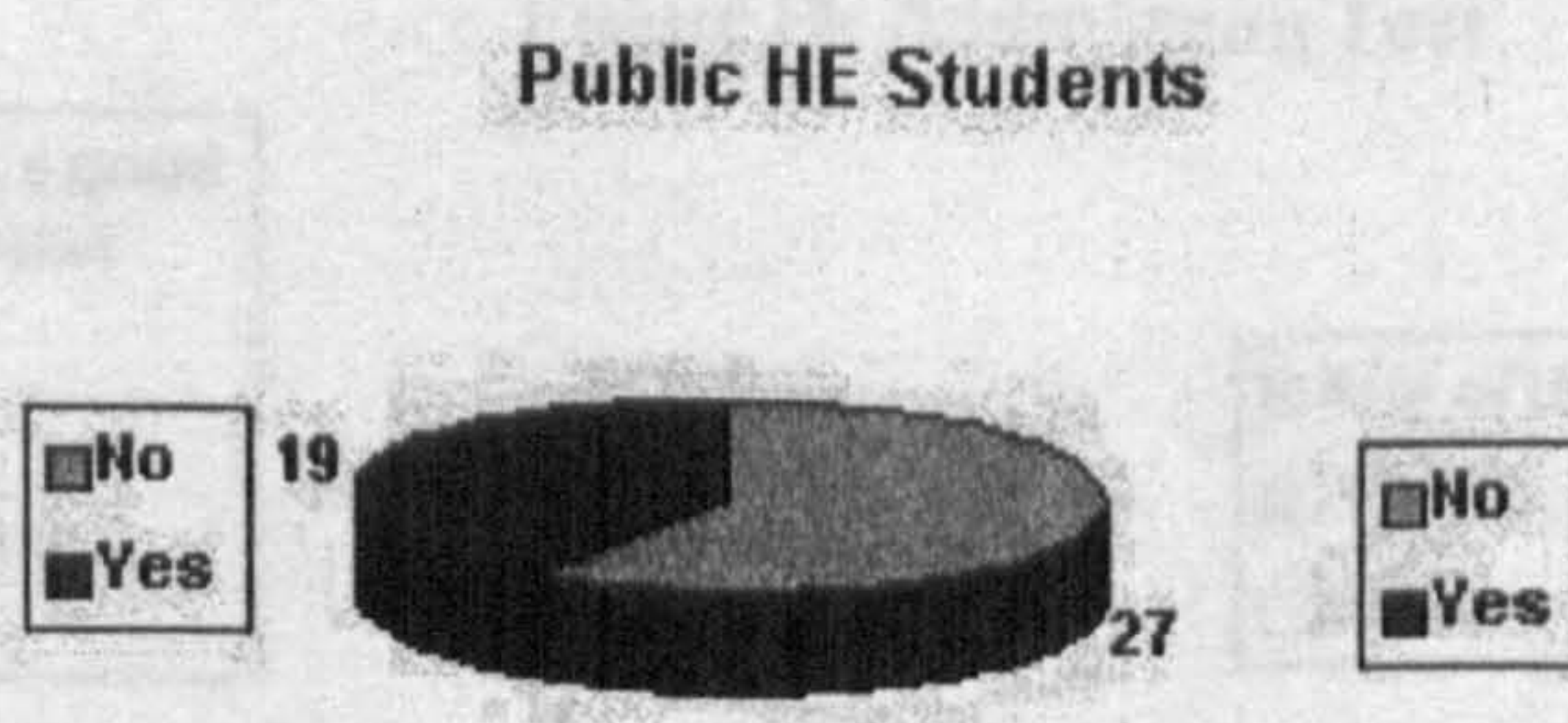


Figure 16

To explore this issue further, I shall examine data from PVHS, where 54.13% completed the admission test of public universities, (see: Figure 17), but none received an offer for their preferred subject. Only 1.21% had an offer from their preferred public university, while 10.14% received an offer of a place from a public university other than their preference. The others (45.87%) were not competent (did not feel competent) to face the admission test conducted by the public universities (see: Figure 17). 74.75% of PVHS said that they would not consider private HE if they had an offer from public universities (see: Figure 18). 100% that, if they had an offer for their preferred subject at any of the public universities, they would not consider a private counterpart.

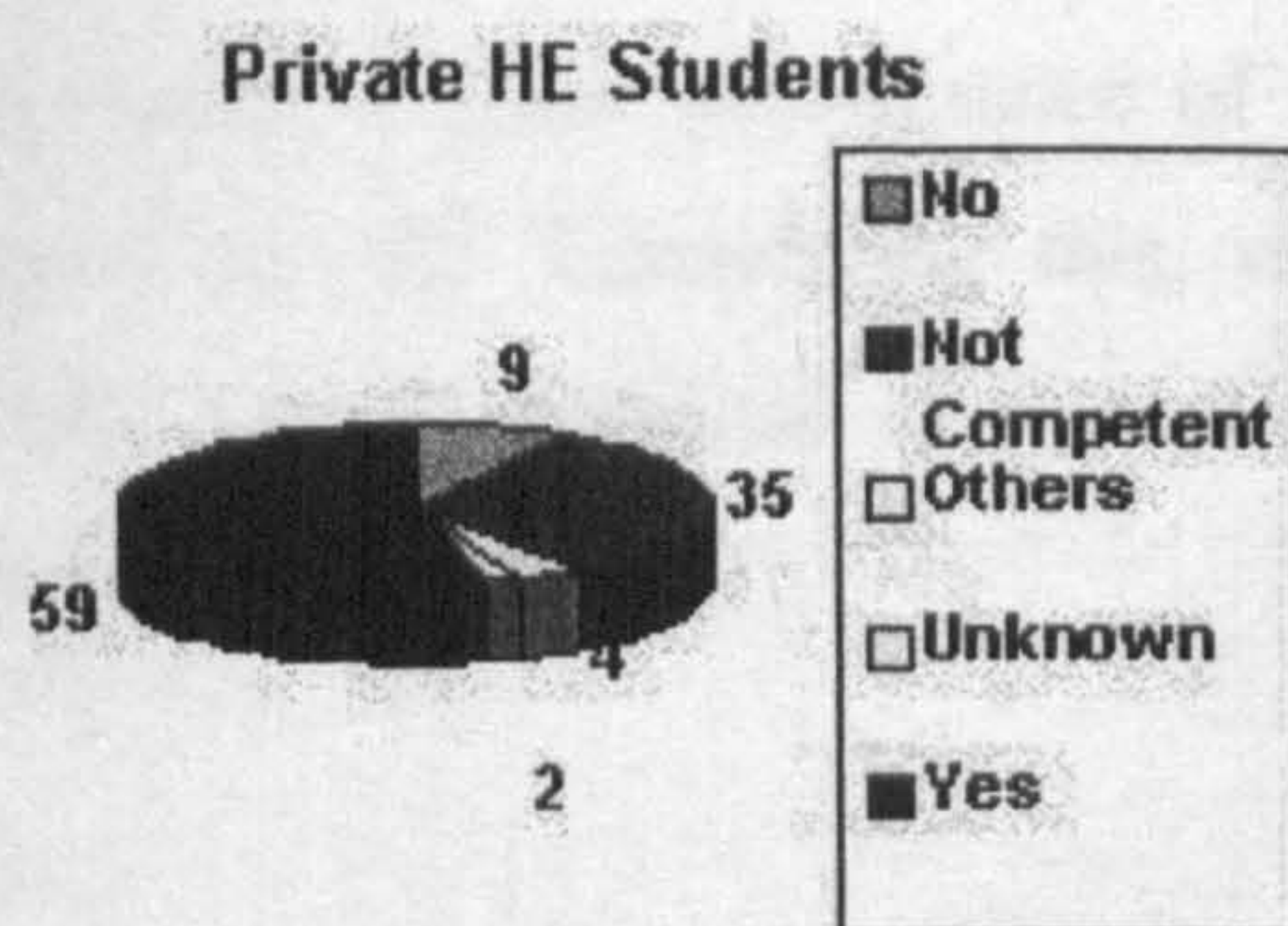


Figure 17

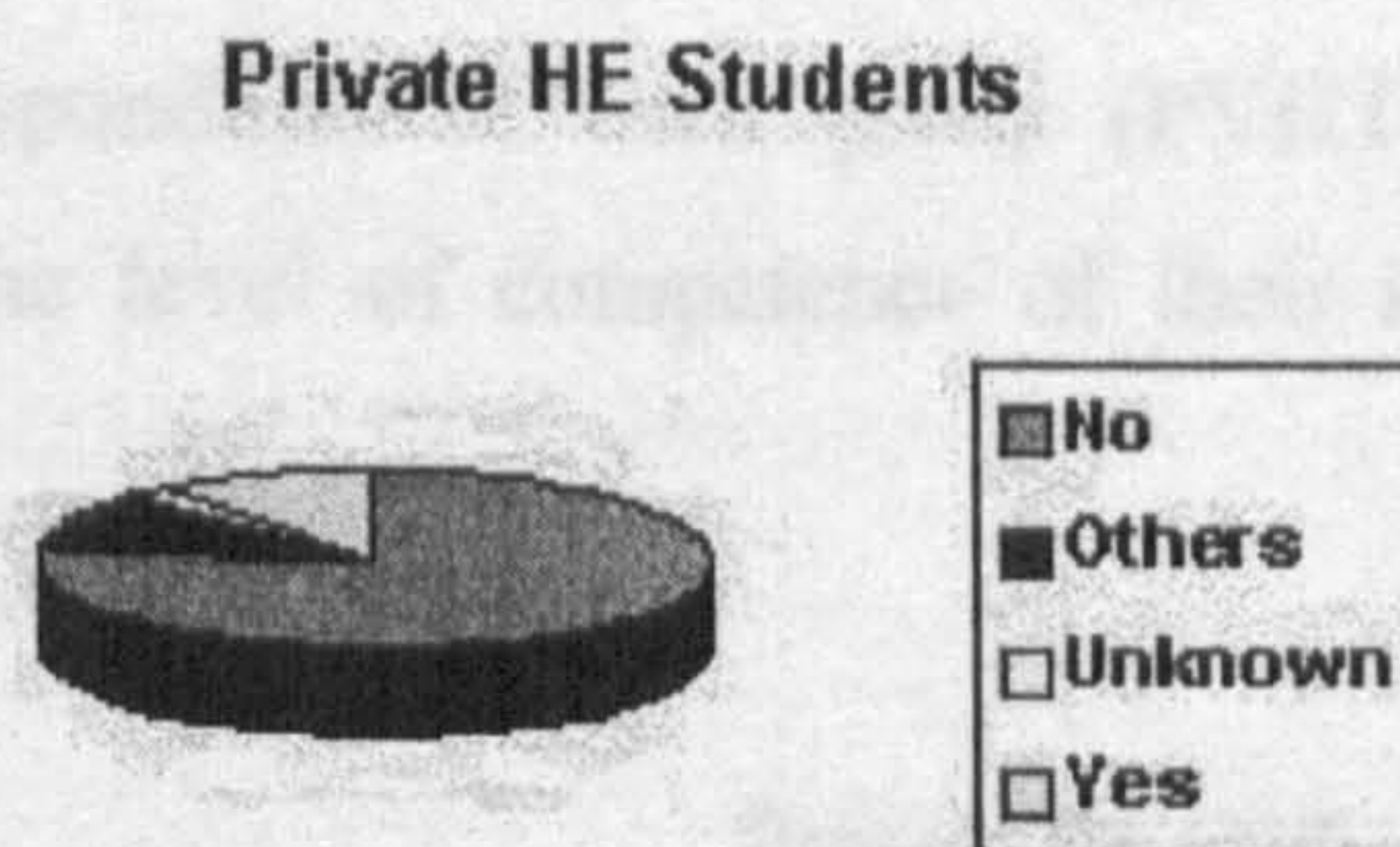


Figure 18

76.31% of PUHAS prefer to study any subject at a public university (see: Figure 19). However, the situation changes if the students are financed by donors. Results indicate that 58.33% would prefer to study in public HE; 38.88% would not mind going to any university, whilst very few (0.0277%) would wish to go to a private institution (see: Figure 20).

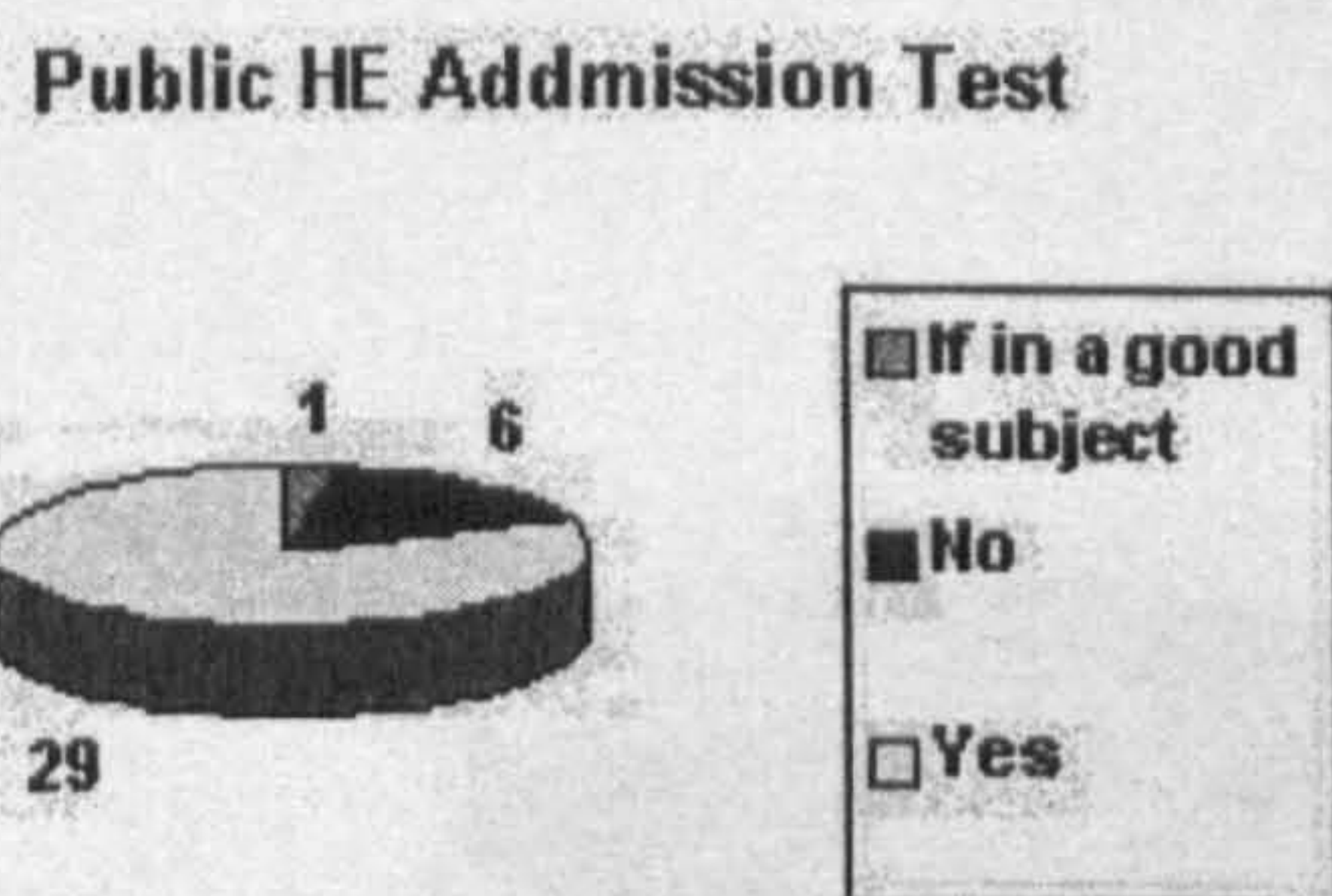


Figure 19

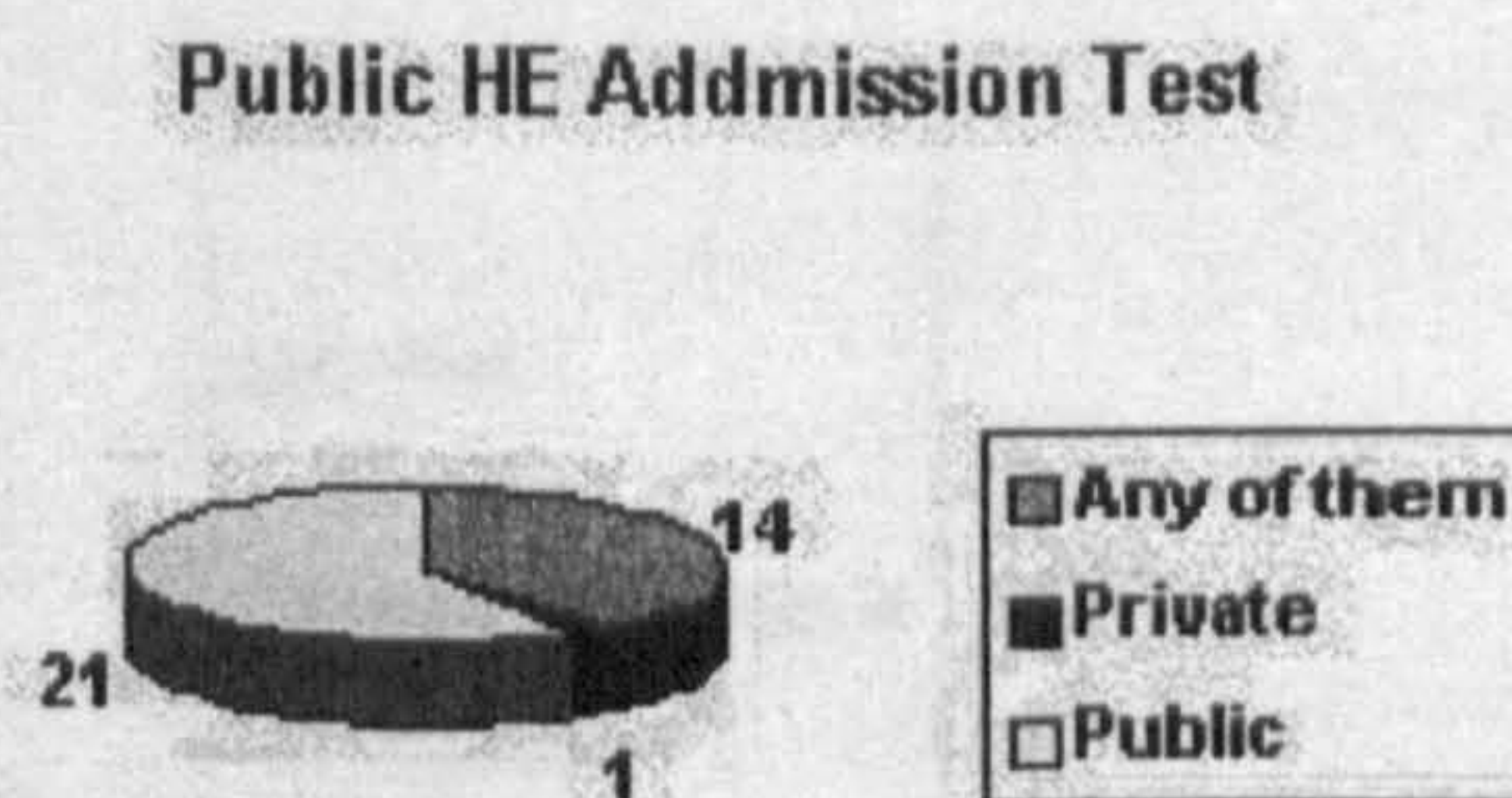


Figure 20

53.48% of PVHAS completed the admission test conducted by the public universities. Only 0.34% received an offer from their preferred public university and none received an offer to study their first choice of subject in any public university.

Triangulated data confirms that public HE is obviously the first preference of students. Many of the less able, under-qualified students, or those disqualified by a public university, consider private HE. Atypically, students receiving an offer to study a less popular subject at a public university are studying in the private sector. However, no students were found to be studying in the private sector if they had been offered a place at a public university to study their preferred subject.

The situation described previously generates the question: "Are students studying in the private HE sector academically capable of pursuing HE?" Their lack of ability

may result in poor performance of the private HE sector and generate a negative impact on HE. Considering this, respondents of each group (PVHT, PUHT and PVHST) were requested to review the level of competence of their students (see: Figures 21, 22 and 23).

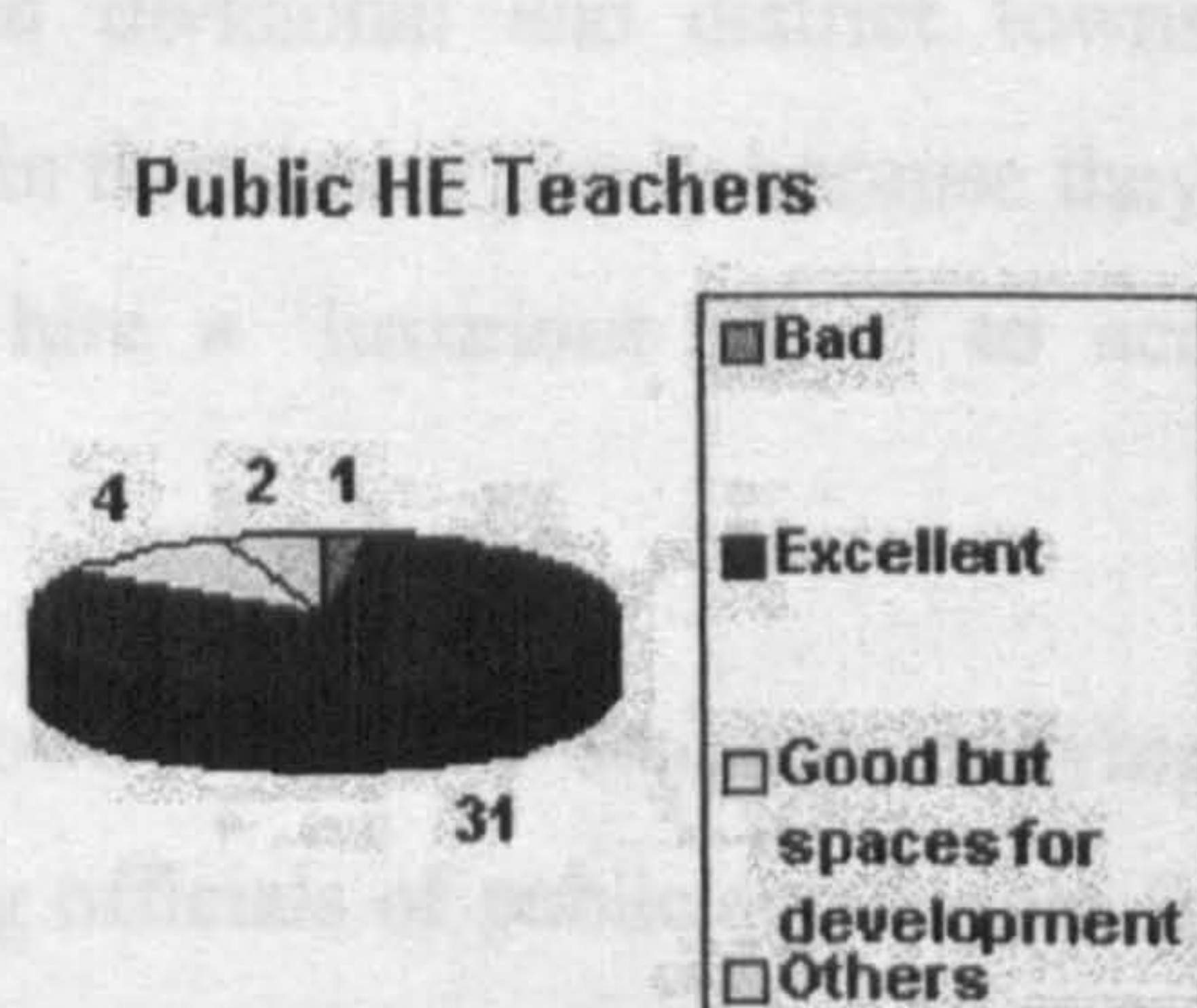


Figure 21

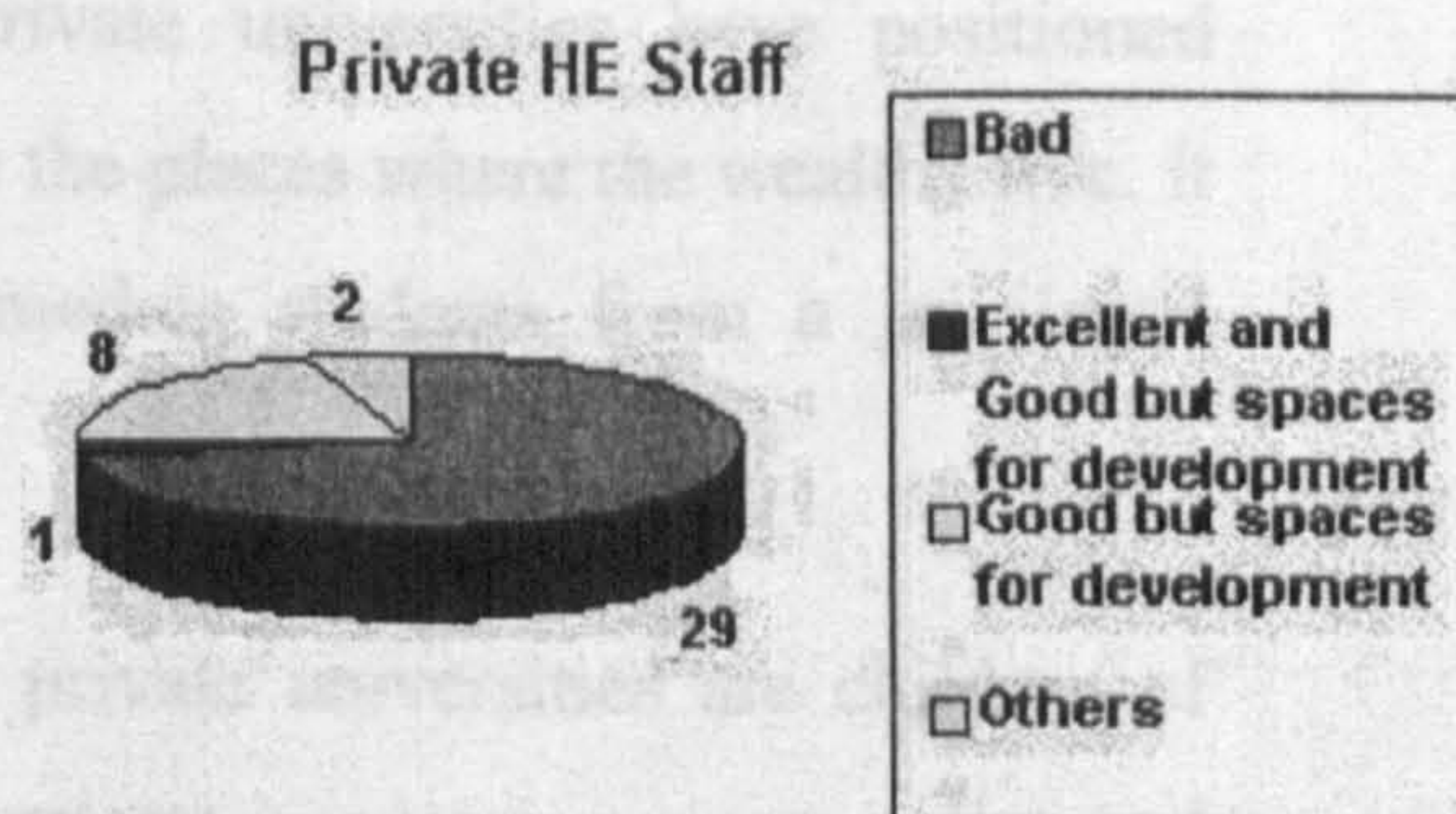


Figure 22

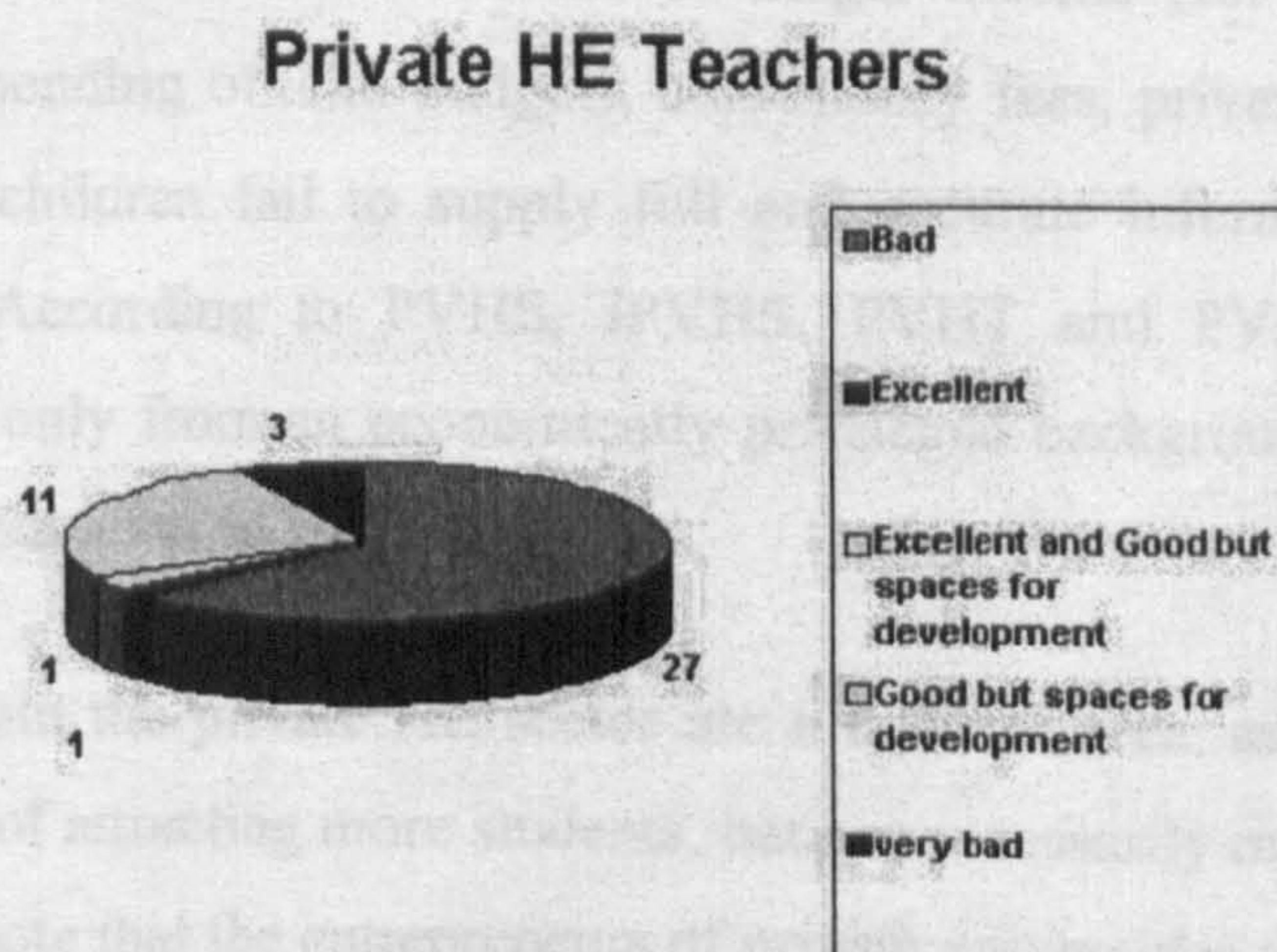


Figure 23

The previous figures illustrate that almost all PUHT consider the competence of their students to be 'excellent'. Conversely, many PVHT and PVHST consider the competence level of their students to be 'bad' ('bad' is used here to denote 'poor', as local respondents may misunderstand the meaning of the word 'poor').

Family background of students targeted by Private HE

"If you want to run a private university, your location must be in the most urban area, especially in Dhaka, not in Comilla."

The above statement was made by an ex-VC of Dhaka University, presently the VC of a private university in Comilla. Documents review shows that of 54 private universities, 47 are located in Dhaka and the rest, apart from one in Comilla, are in Chittagong and Sylhet, (although the universities in Chittagong and Sylhet have Dhaka campuses). A few universities (Southeast, Northern) have recently opened very small campuses in divisional and district towns. Private universities have positioned themselves in these areas purely because they are the places where the wealthy live. It is easy to hire a 'luxurious place' to accommodate students from a privileged background.

PVHS shows that many students studying in private universities are children of high-ranking officials of public enterprises (bureaucrats, academics, army, police and customs officers), and business executives. Public officers in Bangladesh receive low salaries but enjoy a considerable amount of illegal income (for example, bribes, corruption when spending official budgets, consultancy fees, private coaching fees). As a result, their children fail to supply full and accurate information relating to parental income. According to PVHS, IPVHS, PVHT and PVHST private HE students come not only from an economically privileged background, but also from families with a higher level of education.

Scholarships within the private HE sector are a difficult area, as they are offered simply as a means of attracting more students, but not necessarily more able students. It is interesting to note that the entrepreneurs of private universities and institutions do not provide scholarships from their own funds, nor from other sponsor bodies or research funds. The scholarships offered are funded from tuition fees.

Many of the private universities claim that students with a GPA of 5 or Grade A at HSC are welcome to study with them without paying tuition fees. However, it is important to note that, by possessing this qualification, students may study with the public counterparts where virtually no tuition fees need to be paid.

Private universities use a business technique known as '*sale tuition*'. A careful investigation shows that a non-elite private university charges a minimum of TK80,000 per academic year for tuition fees, in addition to other necessary charges such as examination fees, library charges, and charges for accommodation and

transport. In Bangladesh, only the wealthy can afford this for the education of their children. To examine this more closely, data given below represents the views of three groups: PVHT, PUHT and PVHST, concerning the family background of students studying in private universities (see: Figures 24, 25 and 26). The figures (Figures 21, 22 and 23) show that, on the whole, students from a higher class of family background were in receipt of private HE.

	Academically poor but economically solvent students?		
	True	Fairly True	False
PVHST	75%	20%	0
PUHT	89.47%	7.89%	0
PVHT	83.72%	16.27%	0

Table 18: On the issue of 'economically solvent but academically poor' students admitted to the private HE sector

	Meritorious but economically poor students not capable?		
	True	Fairly True	False
PVHST	75%	21%	0
PUHT	92.10%	5.26%	0
PVHT	76.74%	18.60%	4

Table 19: On the issue of 'meritorious but economically poor students not capable of being admitted to a private university/institution'

In this context, it is worth noting that a considerable number of students in private universities do not have the necessary qualifications⁷² for the programme of study (PVHS, IPVHS, IPVHT). It is also important to note that students studying in private HE are sponsored by one or both parents (IPVHS, PVHS). There are cases where students aiming for MBAs or other professional degrees are financed from their own funds. Conversely, a considerable number of students in public HE are financed by relatives other than their parents (PUHS, IPUHS).

⁷² Few respondents studying for a Bachelor (Hon) degree in the private HE sector, especially university provision, pass SSC and 'O' level but to study a Bachelor course, students have to have at least HSC or 'A' level.

Private HE Teachers

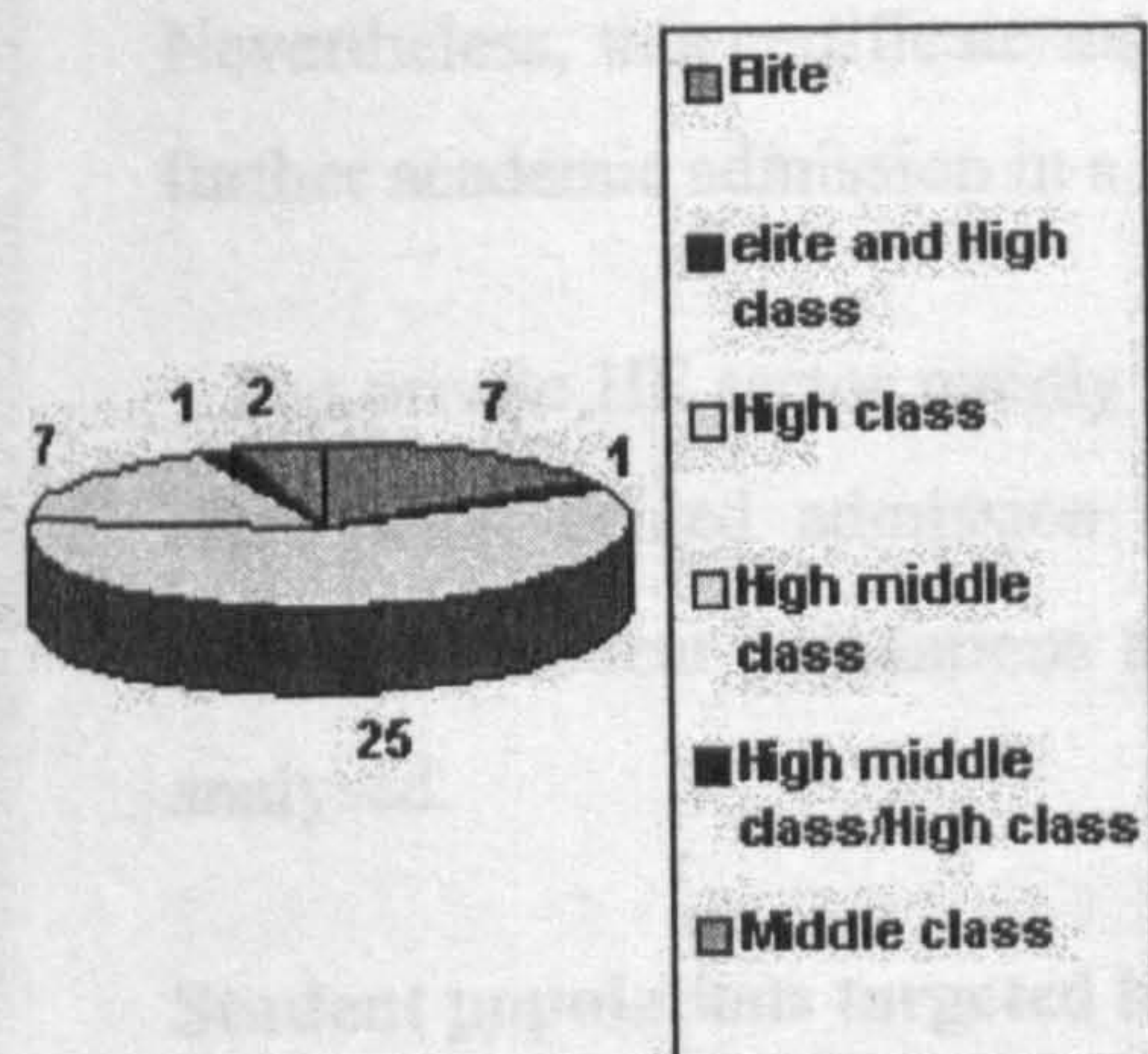


Figure 24

Public HE Teachers

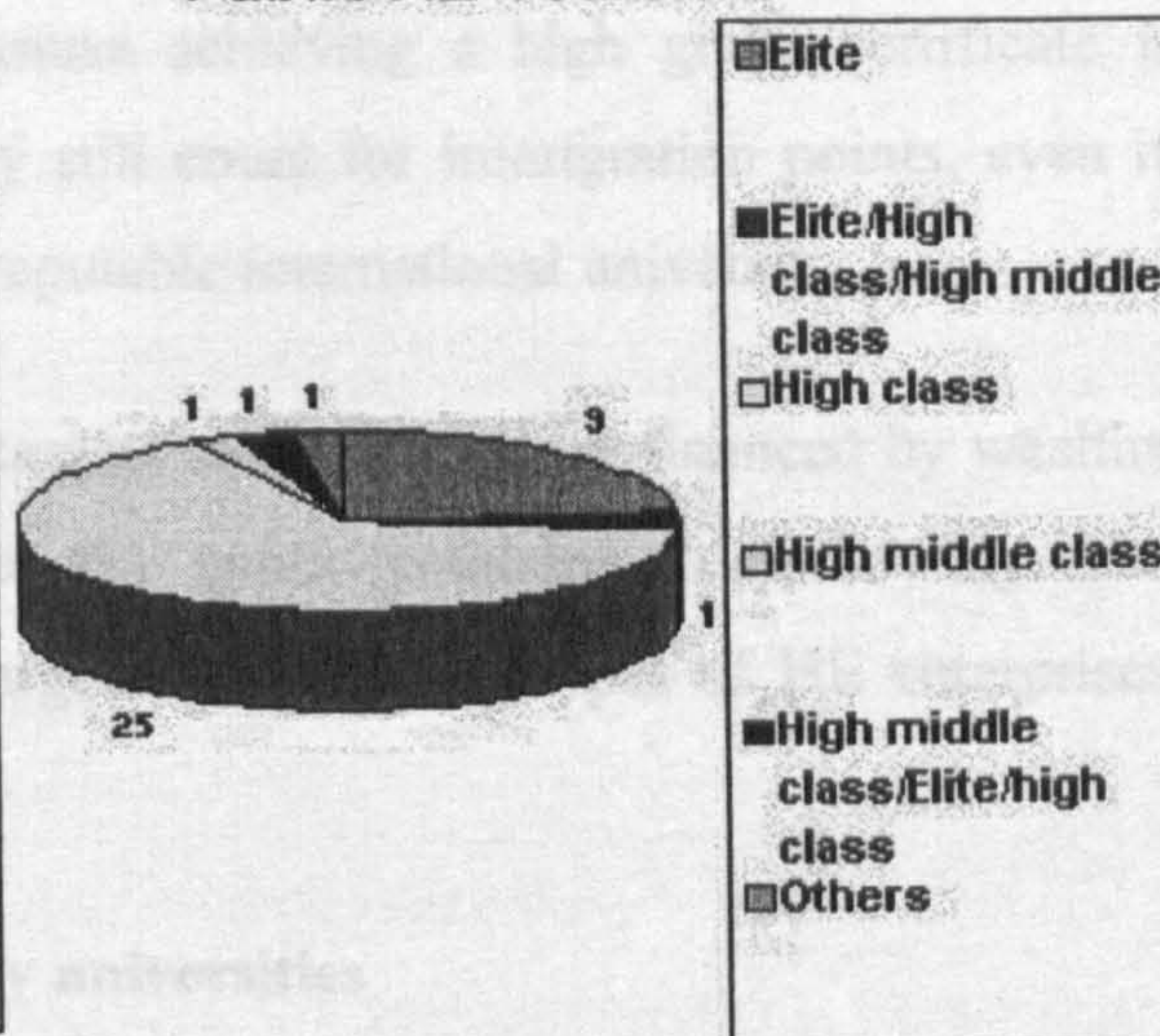


Figure 25

Private HE Staff

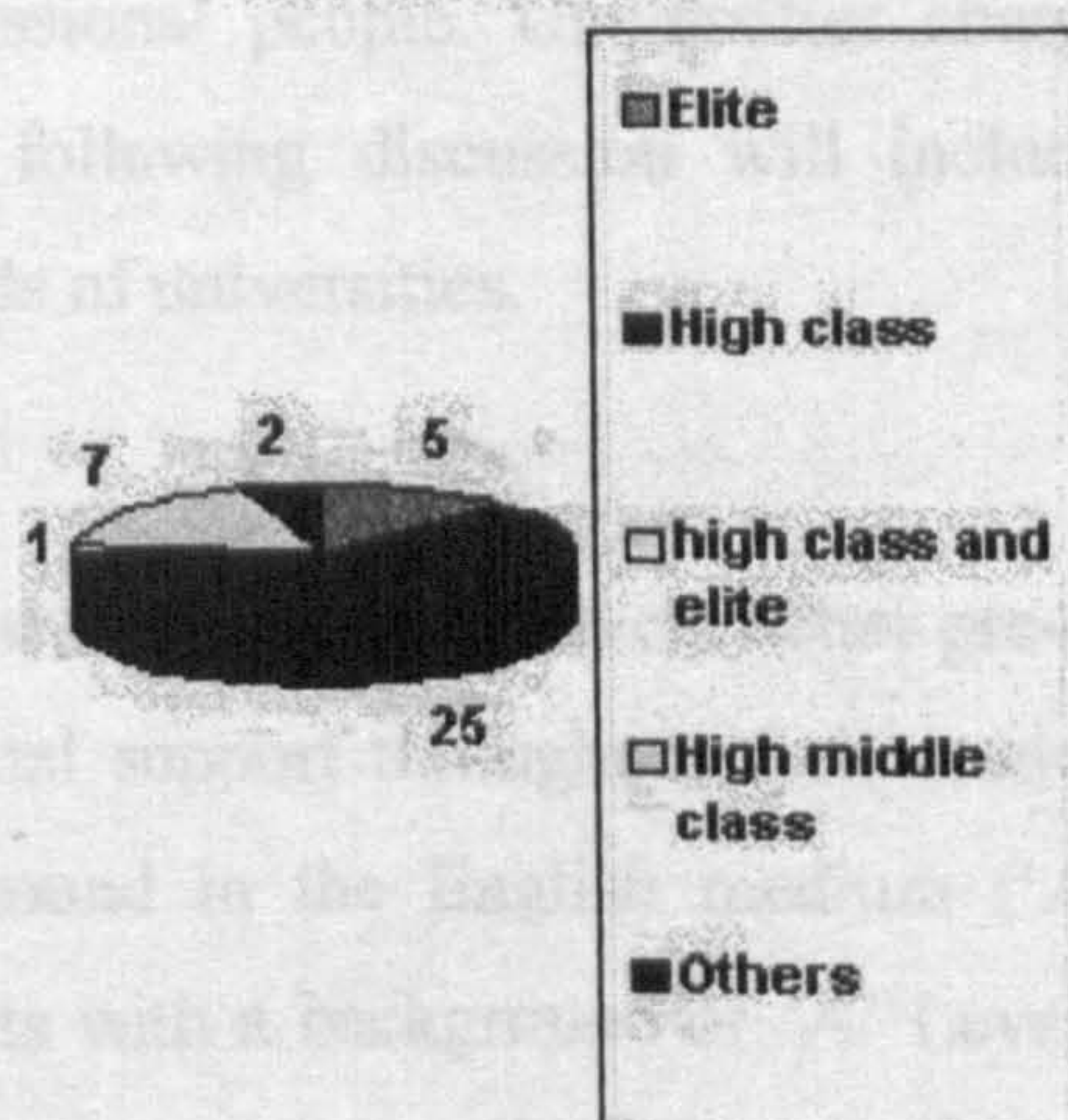


Figure 26

Potential Emigrants

Young people may wish to emigrate or travel to industrialised countries (the USA, UK, Canada and Australia). Many private universities motivate students toward emigration by declaring that credit transfer facilities are available in the developed countries' universities for students who choose to study there (IPVHS, IPVHT, IPVHST). PVHS and IPVHS illustrate that the preference is for private HE institutions because of the availability of credit transfer facilities. The data shows that the widely advertised 'credit transfer programme' is no more than a tactic to gain students as, in reality, many of the universities do not have the necessary collaboration

with the foreign universities. IPVHS show that a good number of potential emigrants are studying in private HE because achieving a high grade certificate is easier. Nevertheless, this certificate may still count for immigration points, even if not for further academic admission in a reputable international university.

The private HE sector mainly targets students who are financed by wealthy parents after being denied admission to the public counterparts. Following this general summary, student populations targeted by different types of HE enterprises will be analysed.

Student populations targeted by universities

Most universities (North South, Independent, and AIUB) established in the earlier phases specifically serve the needs of the elite, whilst many of those established during the middle and later phases serve the needs of the higher classes. Some extend to the upper middle classes. However, many universities established in the final phase specifically target professional people. Universities charging high tuition fees are classed as elitist. The following discussion will include the student population targeted by different kinds of universities.

The Elitist University

Students at an elitist university have relatively better pre-qualifications, as they have had conscientious parental support throughout their academic life (IPVHS, PVHS). Students with a background in the English medium ('A' Level) prefer an elitist university. Some students with a background of 'A' Level education enter the elitist private university without completing the admission test of the public university, although they possess the necessary qualifications to sit the admissions test for a public university, as they prefer to study in an elitist schooling atmosphere (PVHS, IPVHT). Students studying in an elitist university with a Bangla-medium background sat the admission test of the public universities (IPVHT).

University for Professionals

The University for Professionals mainly offers Masters' programmes with a special focus on different types of MBA (Fast Track, Executive, Shorter). Earlier, the scope for pursuing an MBA or other professional degree (M.Ed., B.Ed.) was limited (IPVHT, IPUHT). Within public universities, only the Institution of Business Administration (IBA), under the University of Dhaka, offers MBA for Business

Executive or Professionals. Other MBA programmes recently offered by the public counterparts are for their current graduates only, who have just completed a Bachelor degree⁷³. Professionals graduating from the public counterparts have created a relatively large market for pursuing an MBA or other professional degree within the private sector. The academic excellence of such students is well noted, as they have graduated from good institutions (PVHS, IPVHS). However, there can be a problem insofar as, occasionally, they want the degree to be awarded without scholarly attendance or coursework completion.

University for the higher and upper-middle classes

PVHS shows that most of the students studying at university from the higher and upper-middle classes are not sufficiently competent to sit the admission test of a public university. Many of the students have had a *study gap* during their academic life. They prefer entry to these universities as access is open and it is easier to pass the programme (IPVHT, IPVHS). It is also evident that such universities offer places to students who do not have the necessary pre-qualifications. The danger is that they admit students by an inappropriate method. Students studying at private HLIs or other private universities in the first, second, third or even fourth years are being given an opportunity to be awarded a Bachelor degree in less than the required time – if they pay the tuition fees of the new university.

Student populations targeted by HLIs and Diploma Institutions

Self-financing institutions working under the NUB usually follow similar rules and regulations to those followed by the public institutions. Thus students with a *study gap* of more than two years should not be admitted into HLIs (INUB, IKPV). Students planning to be admitted to HLIs must have an officially-declared minimum prerequisite qualification. It is unlikely that HLIs are filtering students through the application of a competitive admission test as they experience greater difficulty in fulfilling their enrolment capacity (as allocated by the NUB). The socio-economic and

⁷³ Recently, most of the public universities have been offering BBA and MBA degrees for their current students, but not for the professionals. It is interesting to note that the BBA and MBA programmes are not similar to the 'actual' BBA and MBA offered by IBA. Earlier subjects of the Commerce faculty (i.e. namely B.com (Honours) or M.com in marketing, accounting) have been renamed BBA or MBA (i.e. BBA or MBA in Marketing, Accounting) without no change to the course content which is why these BBA and MBA courses are still unprivileged to the earlier graduates.

educational background of the HLI student's family is that of 'higher' and 'upper-middle class'.

Student populations targeted by Diploma Institutions

Diploma Institutions working in collaboration with the BTEB or other controlling agencies theoretically have to follow the same rules and regulations followed by public Polytechnics or Diploma Institutions. Students should possess the minimum prerequisite determined by the controlling body (i.e. BTEB, Directorate of Health). However, one major exception is that students with a *study gap* can study in private diploma institutions. IPVHS and PVHS demonstrate that students studying in such institutions usually have significant *academic year gaps*, and a few of them have already graduated in a non-technical or profession-based subject prior to enrolling on to a diploma programme.

Student population targeted by Franchise Provider

The notion of a Franchise Provider is very complex. The experience of local students and their guardians shows that no authentic overseas education institution operates in Bangladesh (IPVHS, IGUDPVH). Very little data is available to prove that franchise providers target two types of students: the young student who wishes to go abroad, and professionals or business people suffering 'diploma disease' for their occupation or social prestige.

It is interesting to note that public universities provide education, for the most part, to excellent students, whilst students studying in private universities are academically poor. The category of 'good' and 'good but room for improvement' is ignored by both sectors (see: Figures 24, 25 and 26). I therefore argue that private universities should concentrate more on accommodating overlooked categories. This will help them to create a good academic atmosphere. Ultimately, these achievements will motivate excellent students studying in private universities (See: Chapter 9).

Who are the teachers in the private HE sector?

The promotional material – prospectuses, leaflets, web sites – of private universities and institutions report only on the excellent profiles of their academic staff. The IKPV claims that some eminent international teaching staff working with internationally renowned universities (i.e. University of Harvard, University of Bristol) are guest

speakers of the private universities/institutions. I contacted two such academics in order to clarify their involvement with the private universities in Bangladesh. Their communication indicates that the claim made by IKPV is false.

Some nationally-known, full-time academics of public universities appear on the teaching staff list of different private universities and institutions. Investigation of this issue suggests that the private HE sector has two main types of teaching staff: guest speaker and own teacher. I will now discuss the issues surrounding the roles of these two types of teacher.

Guest Speaker

The PUVT and PVHT were asked whether they were involved with other educational enterprises. No teachers from the private HE sector are involved with other organisations. Conversely, 86.84% of teachers in public universities were involved with the private HE sector. The remaining 13.16% were not involved simply because the private HE sector does not offer the subjects in which they specialise (see: Figure 27). Of those who were involved, their job title and role within the private HE sector is that of ‘guest speaker’. This role is somewhat confusing. Data collected from different groups of respondents will be used to analyse this issue.

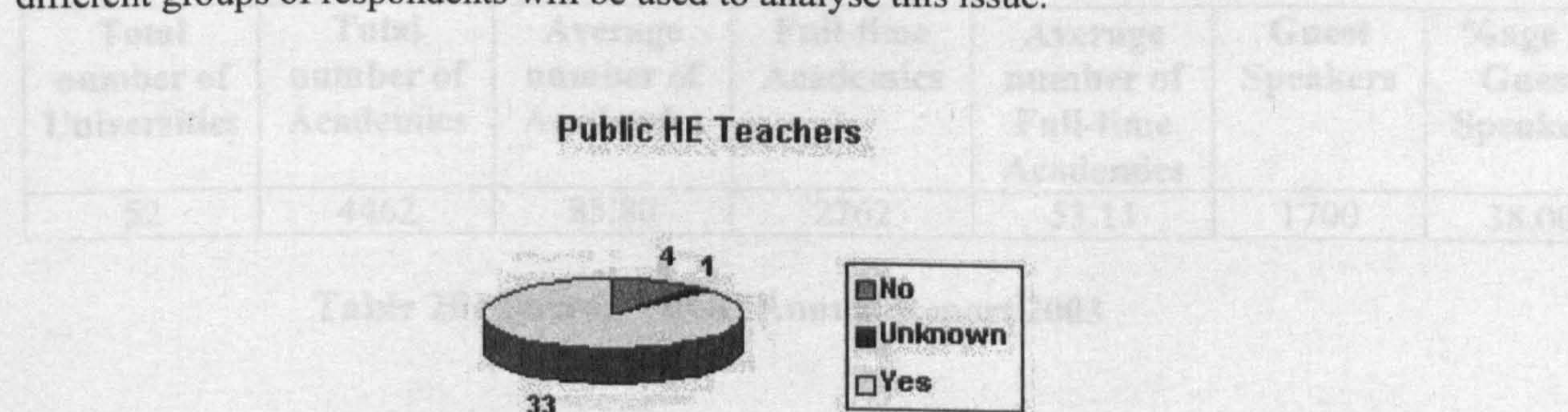


Figure 27

PVHS shows that a substantial number of public university teachers work as a ‘guest speaker’ in private universities. Additionally, 97.67% of PVHT say that a considerable number of their colleagues are full-time employees of public universities. (see: Figure 28).

Before analysing the role of ‘guest speaker’, we can consider the data presented by the UGC (the total number of guest teachers in private universities). It is important to

note that the data published in the UGC annual reports is supplied by the private universities. It is confusing and unreliable, as authorities of the private universities are known to provide misleading information in order to prove that their university is prestigious. For example, when I compared details of the number of full-time and guest speakers of a few private universities as provided by their registrars' office, against that published in the UGC report, differences were found.⁷⁴ Since it was impossible to collect data individually from each private university/institution, I will use that from the UGC annual report of 2003 (this is the only source of the required data).

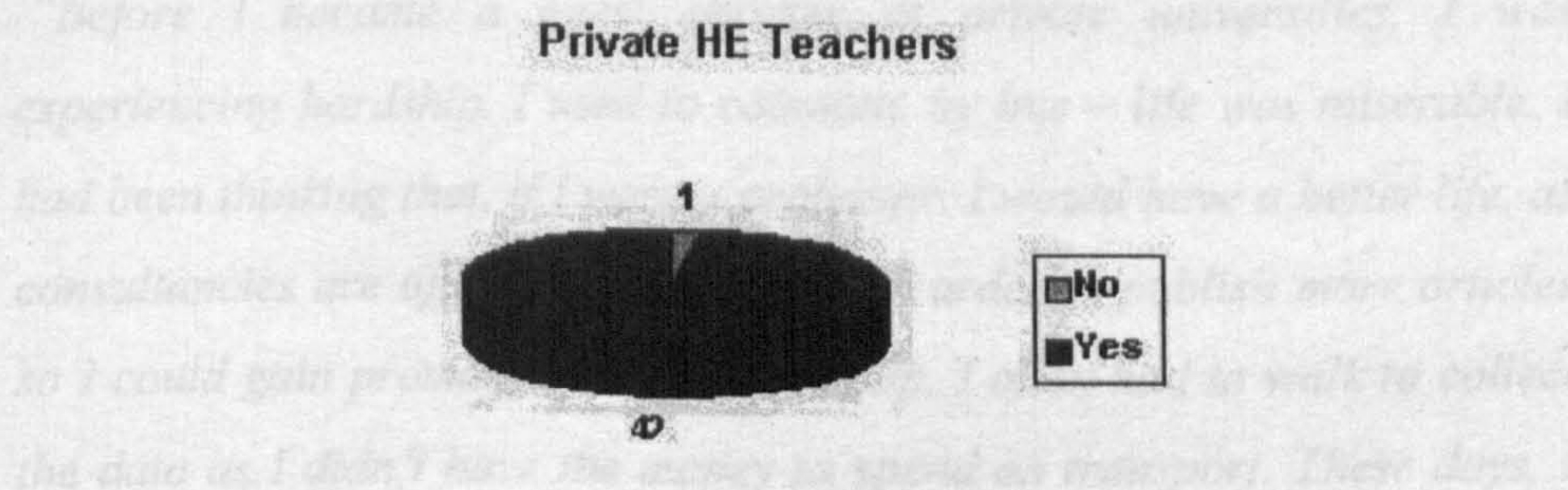


Figure 28

Total number of Universities	Total number of Academics	Average number of Academics	Full-time Academics	Average number of Full-time Academics	Guest Speakers	%age of Guest Speakers
52	4462	85.80	2762	53.11	1700	38.00

Table 20: Source – UGC Annual Report 2003

Table 20 confirms that the average size of the private HE sector's academic staff is small when compared with standard universities (see: Appendix E). It also indicates that 38.10% of teachers at private universities are 'guest speakers'. In addition, a considerable number of public university's academics are working with the private universities (included in the table) as full-time faculty members taking paid or unpaid leave. Furthermore, retired academics from the public universities are work as full-

⁷⁴ Data was collected by myself in 2004. UGC used the data of 2003. According to annual reports (1995-2003) of UGC, recruitment of teachers in private universities was increasing thus, it would be expected that the total number of teachers in 2004 would be more than 2003. Unfortunately, the total number of teachers in 2004 of some private universities (where I conducted my survey) is less than that of 2003 (as published in the UGC annual report of 2003).

time faculty members at the private universities. A large number of public university academics are involved in the private HE sector.

Many of the guest speakers invited are from two particular universities located in Dhaka, as this is where many of the private universities are located. Academics of public universities, specialising in market-driven subjects (Business, IT, Computing, Law), work as guest speakers at several private universities.

An important point is illustrated by a full-time academic at a public university:

“Before I became a guest speaker at private universities, I was experiencing hardship. I used to commute by bus – life was miserable. I had been thinking that, if I were a professor, I would have a better life, as consultancies are offered to professors. In order to publish more articles so I could gain promotion to professorship, I often had to walk to collect the data as I didn’t have the money to spend on transport. These days, I have a house, and cars for myself and my family. However, I have to work hard. I need to deliver just one lecture for one hour in Dhaka University every week. For the rest of the week, I lecture in different private universities starting at 10 am and finishing at 9 pm. Now, I don’t bother with the job of consultancy.”

Although this statement expresses the academic’s satisfaction, it raises a few major concerns:

1. If the employment market of the private HE sector is occupied by the public university academics, what are the prospects for unemployed new graduates?
2. If public university academics are widely engaged with the private HE sector, who is to meet the demands of students in the public HE sector?
3. Increasing the income of particular academics will bring dissatisfaction to other teaching staff at public universities (e.g. in the areas of Geography, Bangla, Education or Chemistry).

IPVHS and IPUHS demonstrate that guest speakers are very ‘erratic’ in taking classes. IPVHT also shows that most of the workload is given to their own faculties, who are poorly paid. They point out that public university academics are employed

for the purpose of advancing the university's prestige. I argue that there is a huge shortage of experienced, competent academics in market-driven subjects, since the offering of these subjects is a recent occurrence. I believe that this shortage of academics leads to the employment of teachers from their counterparts. However, if the academics of public universities can shoulder the workload of the private universities, why do the public universities themselves not increase their enrolment, as they have an excellent infrastructure? I again stress that public universities can offer various shifts (morning, afternoon, evening, weekend) as their teaching staff are lecturing in various shifts at private universities to meet the needs of different groups of students. The issue of payment to academics for the potential extra workload will be discussed in Chapter 9.

I argue that the job market within the private HE sector remains small when compared to the number of universities. The sector does not extensively provide jobs for new scholars – the newly-graduated – and its contribution towards addressing unemployment is slight.

Own faculty

According to the UGC rules, each private university must have a significant number of 'own faculty' members. However, I noted that there are no 'own faculties' in two universities. Private universities established in earlier phases generally have more 'own faculty' members than those established in more recent phases. The involvement of both experienced and non-experienced academics is ensured when own faculties are recruiting (see: Figures 28 and 29). The proportion of 'own faculty' members is dominated by non-experienced academics (see: Figures 28, 29, Table 9). In recruiting new graduates, private universities include both 'excellent' and 'not-so-excellent' groups, since the excellent graduates frequently move jobs (see: Figures 30 and 31).

Working in private provision will not provide scope to obtain the scholarship to pursue HE in developed countries, which is important in order to become a well-known academic in the future. In addition, salary and social prestige are greater for academics of public universities.

An interesting point is illuminated by a respondent:

“If I am employed by the public counterpart or with the controlling agency, I may work with different private universities as a guest speaker, which is good in order to earn more money with less work. Now, as a lecturer at a private university, I have heavy workloads, whereas one of my classmates, having the same kind of academic success working with Dhaka University, is a guest lecturer of this private university and my supervisor,⁷⁵ and has a miniscule workload.”

Interview data from graduate having ‘excellent’ academic backgrounds demonstrates that they are more inclined to work in public universities or in a Public Service Commission. Many of them wish to pursue higher education and emigrate to developed countries (PVHS, IPVHS, and IPVHT). The authority considers a strategy for offering jobs to different groups (experienced, non-experienced), as the experienced and capable groups could be a model for publicity, whilst the less-able group may be more flexible on terms and conditions and timing, and may provide many other kinds of service (e.g. teaching, administration, counselling) whenever desired by the authority. The following figures present the view of PVHS on the issues stated.

Figure 29: Percentage of recently graduated teachers involved exclusively with this university/institution:

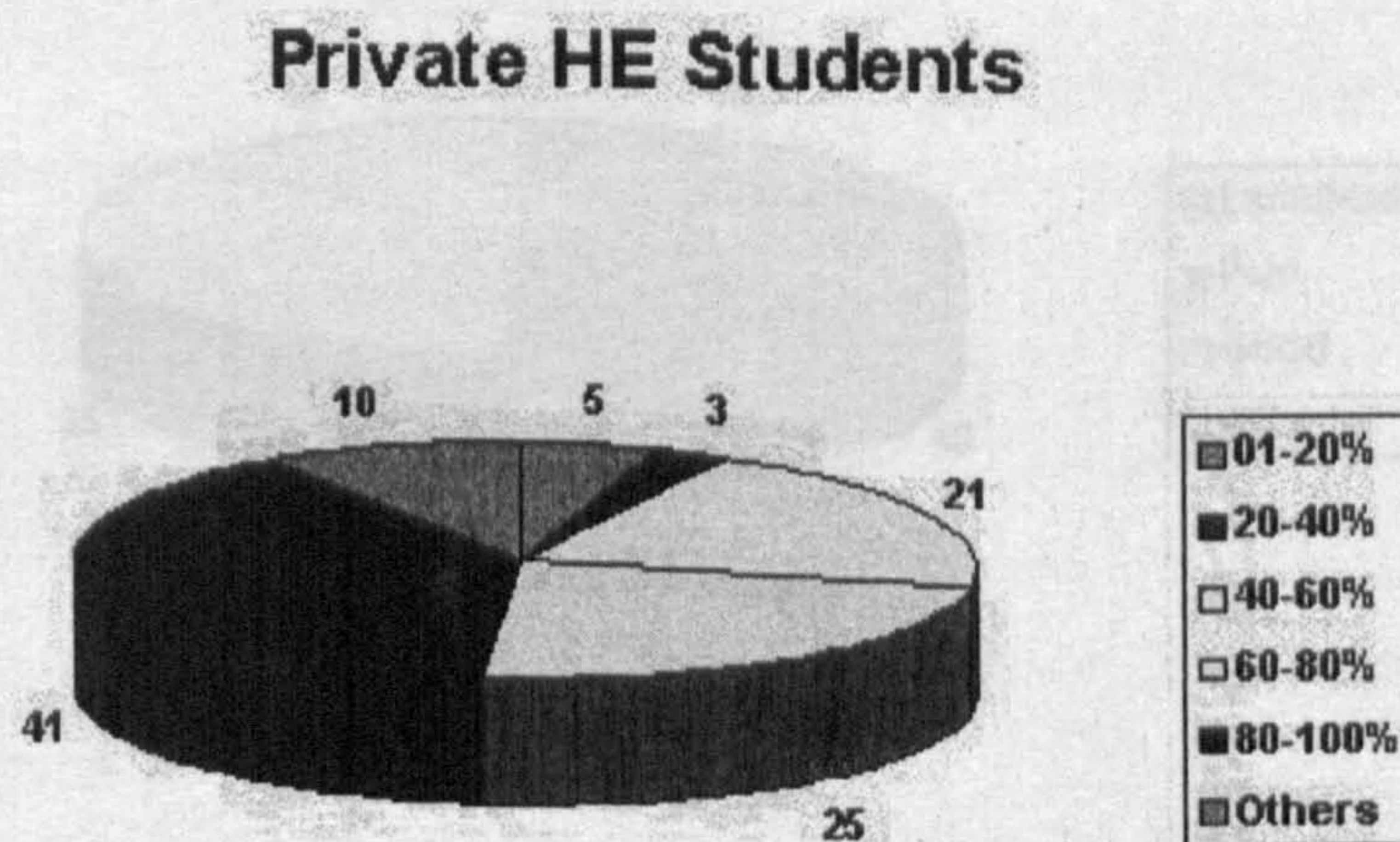


Figure 29

⁷⁵ The respondent used this word to express her depth of concern. The word ‘supervisor’ does not mean academic supervisor but that her classmate is a guest speaker

Figure 30: Percentage of experienced teachers involved exclusively with this university/institution:

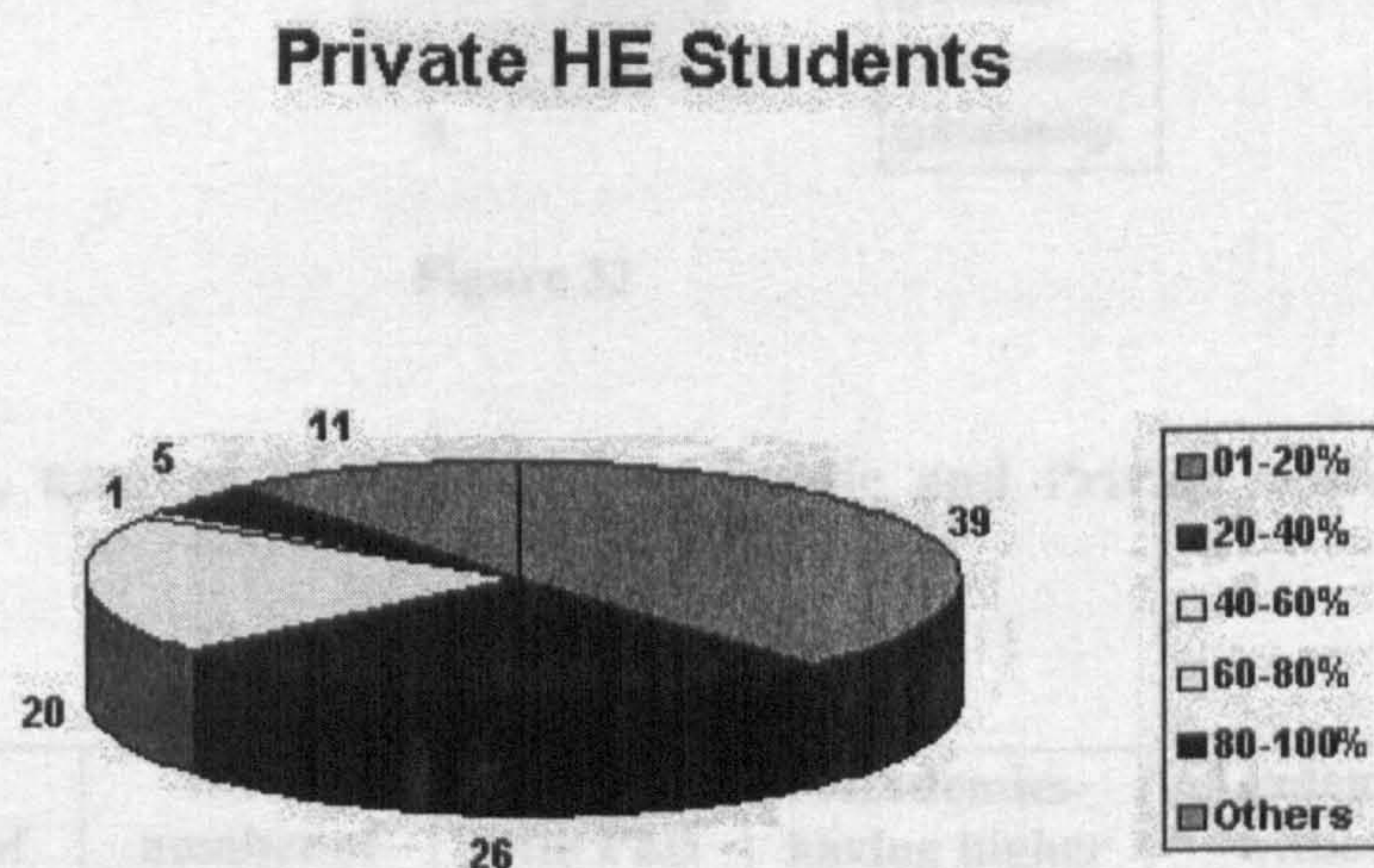


Figure 30

Figure 31: Respondents were asked to give their opinion in relation to the qualification and experience of teachers involved exclusively with their particular university/institution:

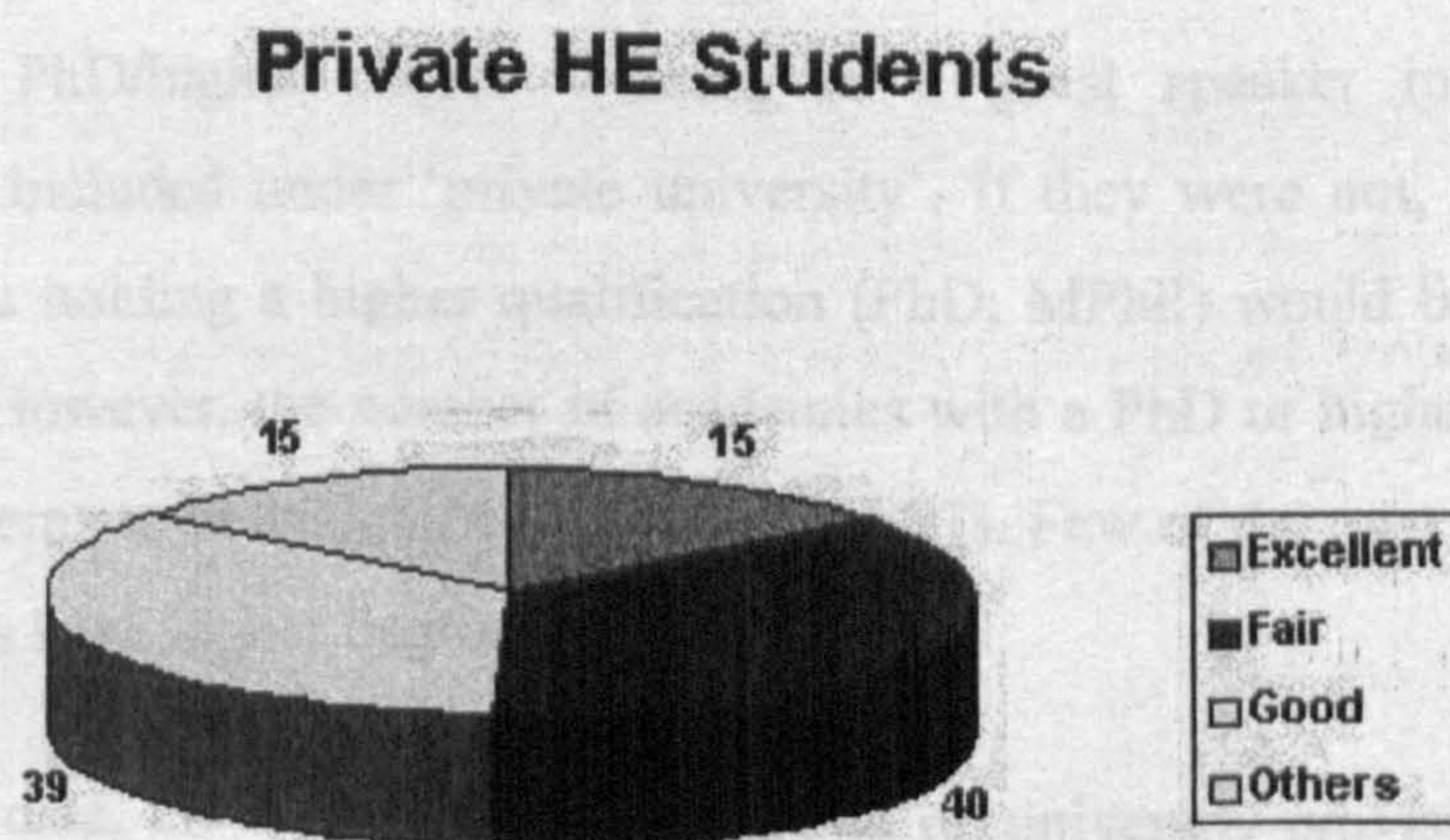


Figure 31

Figure 32: Respondents were asked for their opinion in respect of the teachers' movement (transfer) situation:

Private HE Students

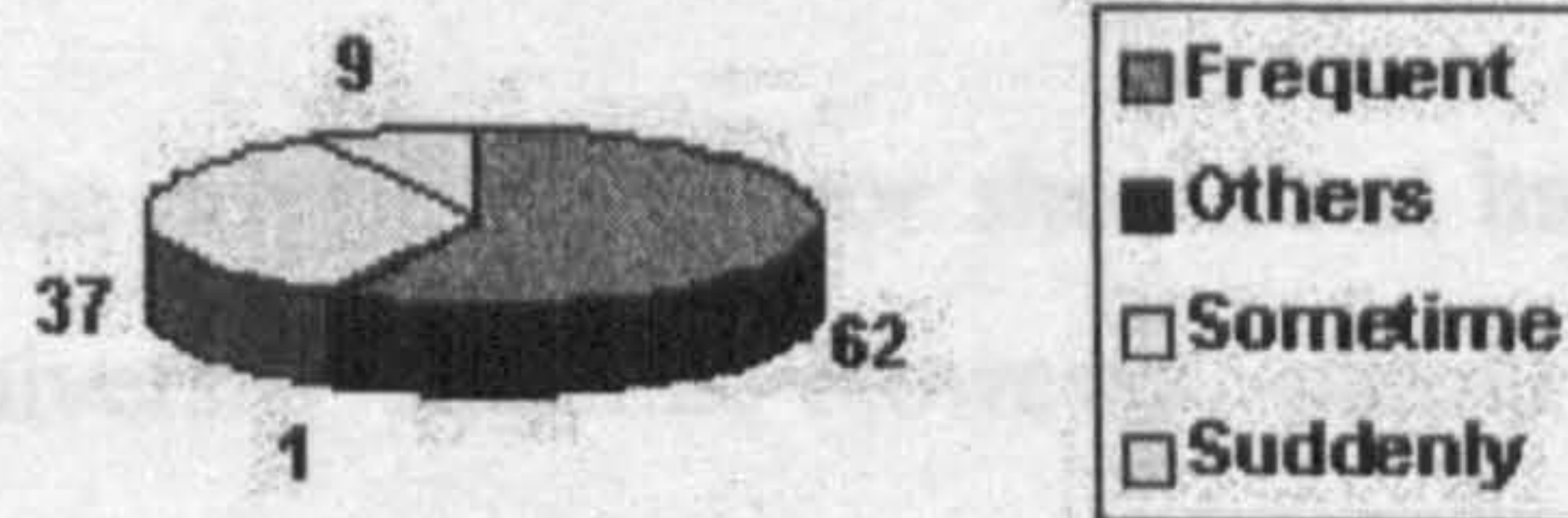


Figure 32

Table 21: In 2003, number of academics of Public and Private universities according to qualification:

Type of University	Total number of Universities	Total number of Academics	Academics with PhD	Academics having higher qualifications (e.g. M.Phil, Masters)	Academics without higher Degree	Percentage of Academics without Higher Degree
Public	21	6101	2212	1610	2279	37.35
Private	53	4543	700	909	2934	64.58

Source: UGC Annual Report 2003

In order to clarify Table 21, it is important to note that academics of public universities with a PhD/higher degree working as a guest speaker in private universities are also included under 'private university'. If they were not, the total number of academics holding a higher qualification (PhD, MPhil) would be low in private universities. However, the number of academics with a PhD or higher degree in private HE still seems to be insignificant (see: Table 21). Few of the own faculties of private universities have higher degrees.

Due to a lack of data, the above discussion focuses on university provision only. However, directors of private HLIs and diploma institutions describe a difficult situation. They say that constraints exist which restrict them to recruiting 'own faculty' exclusively. Institutions working in collaboration with the controlling body are given the syllabus and questions for examinations by that controlling body. Examination papers of students at private institutions are assessed by the academics of public universities. Situations such as these force the authorities of private HLIs to

involve the academics of their public counterparts and controlling bodies, even though they might wish otherwise.

I argue that the expansion of the private HE sector should not have a detrimental effect on the rights of public university students. However, should such a situation occur, it will detract sharply from the quality of HE as a whole.

Figure 32 presents the views of PUHS on the issue of their teachers' involvement with private HE sector.

Public HE Students

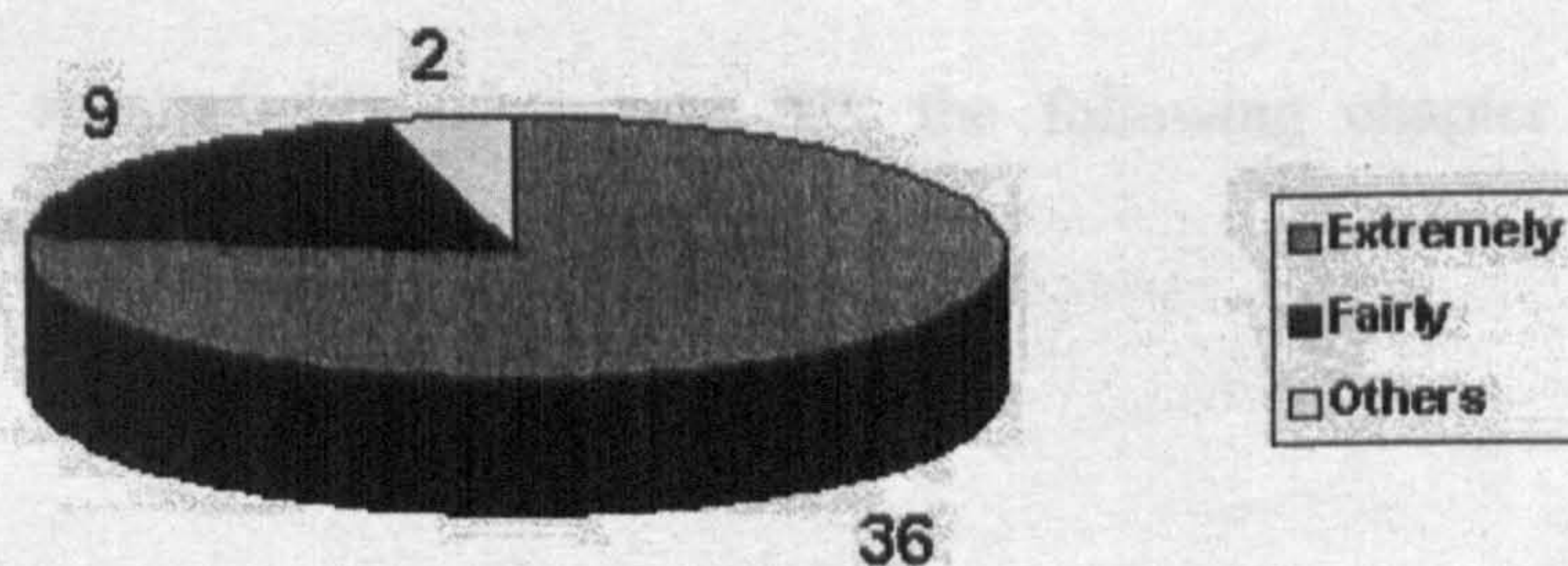


Figure 33

Conclusion

The summary of each discussion has been included in each section, and the results are found to be similar to those of other developing nations, as discussed in the literature review. Researchers who have previously investigated private HE have not analysed the issues in any depth. My intention was to explore the issues thoroughly, as they would provide a lead when investigating the advantages and disadvantages of private HE.

The expansion of education is considered to be an indicator of development, as researchers find that education plays a vital role. In my view, if a good quality basic education, in a wide range of programmes such as VET, training adult education, in-service training etc., is prudently expanded, and is accessible by any individual, then in the light of employment patterns, it will contribute towards development.

However, tertiary education should only be available for competent students. Imprudence in the expansion of education leads to an improvident allocation of

investment. This improvident allocation results in a high graduate production cost, so, whilst the rate of return of education will be calculated, the result may indicate that education does not actually play a significant role in development. In my view, although it is not a fault of education itself but rather the fault of allocation to education by the policy-makers, people will still blame education.

The selection of students for HE should be based on individual merit. The purpose of university education and research is to create a platform for development which will bring further job opportunities to a large population. Providing access for inappropriately educated students to HE hinders the building of a platform for development, and may even break the existing platform. I argue that, within a sound academic atmosphere, quality education needs to be ensured for competent HE students.

In order to justify the substantiality of private HE, the following chapter will investigate its advantages and disadvantages.

Chapter 7: Analysis of findings and explanation of advantages and disadvantages of Private HE

Introduction

Chapter 7 is an analysis chapter that interprets the findings presented in chapters 5 and 6, analyses it according to the literature, and provides a framework for the analysis provided in chapter 8.

In examining the advantages and disadvantages of private HE, researchers usually compare the private sector with the public sector. If researchers fail to use a comparative tool when analysing the advantages and disadvantages of private HE and its role in national development, they may lack the parameters or metaphors to explain any situations that occur. For example, there is no fixed amount for the cost of producing a graduate. So, in order to analyse the graduate production cost at a private university, researchers use a comparison between a public and a private university. However, it must be borne in mind that the public HE sector has a long heritage and enjoys the advantages this brings. Because of its longer history, public HE has had more opportunity to note criticism and respond to recommendations made by researchers. Thus, a full comparison between the public and private sectors usually fails to provide any significant answers. This is not a comparative study, however, to investigate the above research questions; we merely compare public with private.

What are the advantages of private HE?

The following discussion will analyse the advantages of private HE in two parts. The first will consider the broader perspective of the contribution private HE makes to the development of Bangladeshi education; the second will consider the positive role played by private universities and institutions.

Support for the government budget

Since independence in 1971, the government has always emphasised that education is its first priority when it comes to the allocation of public funds. Prior to 1971, public funding of Bengal education was completely inadequate. Many people were unable to gain access to education (IMOE, IUGC). Donor agencies concentrated on

providing basic education through non-formal provision to people who had received no earlier education (DR). To achieve the goal of EFA, the government concentrated its efforts towards providing access to primary and secondary level education for the entire school-aged population.

Although public efforts in recent years have been extensive, there remains a significant number of Bangladeshi people who do not receive a basic education (IMOE). Research, as well as a general consensus of opinion, points the finger at mismanagement and corruption as being primarily responsible for the lack of balance in Bangladeshi education development (IMOE, IHPU). It is obvious that the corrupt overall atmosphere in Bangladesh hinders the country's development – but that same corruption helps a number of people become affluent very quickly.

Private HE gathers funds by charging the affluent (those not in need of support from public money), and thereby reduces government subsidies to this sector. This allows the government to invest more money in the development of primary, secondary and non-formal education (IKPV). Nevertheless, it is important to note that the dependents of both rich and poor guardians pay the same tuition fees in public universities. So, if rejected by a public university, students with a sound economic background will choose private HE (see: Chapter 9).

Saving foreign currency for Bangladesh

Before the introduction (and massive expansion of) private HE in Bangladesh, many students travelled abroad to study, especially to India, Singapore and Malaysia (IPVHT, IPUHT). It has not been possible to collect official data from the Indian, Singaporean and Malaysian High Commission in Dhaka in order to conduct an unofficial research project. In the absence of official data, a colleague working within the local Indian High Commission has provided approximate figures. These have been useful for the analysis of this aspect.

According to the information supplied, the trend of Bangladeshi students was to head to India for higher education before 1990. The information then shows that approximately 16,000 students per annum travelled to India for HE between 1990 and 1999. Assuming that the average student will spend US \$4,000 per annum on tuition

and accommodation, India gained an estimated US \$25,600,000⁷⁶ for each year during that period. By 2004, the number of students leaving for India had plummeted to 200 – the Bangladeshi private HE sector was accommodating the students locally and Bangladesh saved itself the loss of economic wealth to foreign currency. Moreover, a small number of overseas students choose to study in Bangladeshi private HE, thus helping the country earn foreign currency (DR). It is important to acknowledge the trend of Bangladeshi students pursuing education in developed countries.

To examine this, the data of TOEFL and IELTS⁷⁷ will be used. The scores of TOEFL or IELTS are almost compulsory for every Bangladeshi student wishing to study in a developed country such as the USA, UK, Canada, Australia or Japan:

Year	Total of TOEFL Examinees
October 1999 – September 2000	6503
October 2000 – September 2001	3428
October 2001 – September 2002	3354
October 2002 – September 2003	1571
October 2003 – September 2004	1266

Table 22

The table shows that the number of TOEFL examinees is declining. The following discussion will explore the reason for this decline.

The newly-introduced computer system, TOEFL (introduced in Bangladesh in October 2000), revealed a marked decline in the number of examinees during the year of 2000-01. Apparently, Bangladeshi students were wary of the system as they were unfamiliar with computer-based examinations. They assumed that the system would

⁷⁶Approximately 16,000 new students travelled in each year in order to pursue a four-year undergraduate degree therefore, after the first four years, 64000 Bangladeshi students would have been studying with Indian institutions in any one year.

⁷⁷ The total number of Bangladeshi students studying in a specific country, say in the UK, was not considered because students choose to travel to a number of developed countries to take higher education. In addition, the total number of Bangladeshi students studying in specific country may vary from year to year due to changes in policy (granting of visa, scholarships offered) and interest. Therefore the total number of students studying in a specific country might not represent the general scenario.

examine their computer skills, so they attended computer courses before appearing in the TOEFL.

After the tragedy of the September 11 terrorist attacks in the USA, America and Canada imposed very strict restrictions governing the granting of student visas. In addition, initiatives adopted by the UK and Australia for attracting international students increased IELTS examinees. As a result, the number of TOEFL examinees declined. A simple conclusion may be that the number of students intending to study in America and Canada is in decline, as these countries consider the TOEFL score a prerequisite of admission. Conversely, the following analysis illustrates that the number of Bangladeshi students travelling to other developed countries (the UK, Australia) is increasing dramatically.

The exact number of IELTS examinees was not available from the local British Council, but a statement by an Education Promotion Officer at the British Council in Dhaka is worth noting:

"In 1999, only a couple of hundred examinees attended IELTS. Now, by the middle of 2004, more than 10,000 students have taken the IELTS. It is important to add that the demand for IELTS is too high to accommodate all of them. We have extended the facilities to accommodate more students but the demand for IELTS is growing very quickly and we cannot compete with the increased demand."

The total number of students⁷⁸ planning to travel to developed countries in 1999 was less than that of 2004⁷⁹. However, the increasing number of Bangladeshi students studying in developed countries is not considered as a *loss* of foreign currency, rather it is considered a process of *earning* foreign currency, as the students manage their tuition and accommodation costs by taking on part-time work.

⁷⁸ 6503 TOEFL examinees + 740 IELTS examinees = 7243 (The number of IELTS examinees is approximate. It is the rough calculation of an Education Promotion Officer of BC).

⁷⁹ 10,000 IELTS examinees + 1266 TOEFL examinees = 11266 (10,000 was an approximate figure made as a rough calculation in the middle of 2004. So it may be assumed that this figure had increased by the end of the year).

A significant number of students, particularly those studying research and post-graduate degrees, enjoy scholarships provided by international funders. The opportunity to pursue a research degree in Bangladesh is not available in the private sector, and the public sector accommodates few research students. Without fully assessing the potential effect of this 'brain drain',⁸⁰ local economists advocate that student migration generates higher income in foreign currency. Some private universities work in collaboration with foreign universities providing credit transfer facilities to students at specific universities or institutions. With the potential offered by such credit transfer facilities in private HE, a significant number of students choose to travel to developed countries every year.

Understanding the motives of the labour market

Studies by international organisations, in particular research conducted by the World Bank and DFID, suggest that Bangladesh has no alternative for development other than to utilise its overcrowded population. In order to secure the proper utilisation of manpower, it has been suggested that the country needs to provide a technical, job-oriented and timely education for its population.

Government and educational policy-makers generally consider the World Bank's studies when forming policy. However, the studies are not entirely comprehensive, as they fail to identify the target group required to provide the technical and job-oriented programme.

BANBEIS (2003) indicates that the dropout ratio of students is higher at secondary level education. Many students enter the labour market when they discontinue their education. It follows that technical and job-oriented programmes need to be provided for secondary graduates. Public education is considered to be ignoring this labour market pattern, whereas private education operates in a competitive atmosphere, with private HE sector entrepreneurs being concerned about the employment prospects of their graduates (see: Chapters 5 and 6). In such circumstances, it would be an

⁸⁰ To develop a trained human resource, a country has to invest a certain amount of money so the working of these trained people in a developed country proves that the money, effort, and time invested is a bad investment since the country is not particularly benefited by their brain. However, the local economists argue that there are not enough jobs available in Bangladesh. Moreover, the country cannot provide sufficient facilities for outstanding scholars so they cannot significantly contribute to the development of the country. Considering such circumstances, local economists advocate that the earnings of scholars in the workplace in developed countries are of benefit to the country.

enormous advantage if private education were to provide training for school leavers. IKPV entirely agrees with this assessment, but emphasises that investing time and effort in training courses is not socially acceptable, nor is the paying of tuition fees. Students, and their guardians, are willing to invest time and money in higher education (IPVHS, IGUDPVH). The words of a director of HLI are important here:

“It is quite clear that many of the students pursuing higher education in the private HE sector can be identified as higher secondary school leavers. If we provide access to a training programme for them instead of access to higher education, they will go to India to pursue higher education, as India makes it a business challenge to collect students from Bangladesh. I completely agree that students studying with the private sector are competent enough to study training programmes in job-oriented and technical subjects, instead of taking on challenges in studying for Bachelor and Masters Degrees. Since students and guardians are interested in taking up higher education, we provide them with a higher education in technical and job-orientated subjects. As a result, students from the private sector are at least trained manpower in technical and job-orientated subjects.”

The statement is clear enough. It is accepted that the private HE sector is incapable of providing meaningful HE because the students lack capability, but their endeavours are aimed towards providing education in technical and job-oriented subjects. The private HE sector is unable to change the mentality of the students and their guardians. Policy-makers are responsible for finding a solution by the imposition and implementation of proper policy and governance (see: Chapter 9).

Private institutions are not autonomous, and cannot offer training programmes or short courses (IKPV). On the other hand, private universities are so-called autonomous bodies, but still cannot offer training programmes and short courses without the permission of UGC (IKPV). Some entrepreneurs of private universities and institutions claim that they have instigated a process to begin offering training programmes for the employees of different business organisations, in collaboration with their employers, but that the necessary permission was not obtained from the controlling agencies.

International organisations have noted that the utilisation of existing manpower is the only way forward for the development of Bangladesh. Whilst in agreement, I would add that Bangladesh also has natural resources in abundance (gas, minerals, fertile and arable land). The country needs to provide the skilled manpower to secure the proper utilisation of these resources: without it, vital revenue is paid to foreign experts and consultancies. The dependency on foreign experts for information regarding such economically-sensitive issues limits the country's capability in several areas: informed details of the availability of mineral resources, adequate distribution of said resources, policy-making, marketing strategy for resource sale, and lack of confidentiality. IKPV indicate their interest in working in these areas but stresses that, without government support, they are unable to do so.

Lower graduate production cost

Without proper analysis, many IHPU, IPUHT, IUGC and IMOIE state that private universities are expensive in comparison to their public counterparts, noting that the private universities collect large tuition fees. However, they fail to mention the funding that public HE receives from both the government and from international donors.

Analysis follows which indicates that private universities are more cost-effective than their public counterparts. Before further analysis of the table in Appendix E can take place, however, it is important to clarify two points:

- The total expenditure of public universities noted in the table is accurate. The funds are provided by the UGC; the data collected from UGC's annual report.
- Private universities manage their own funds. The UGC can only supply information that has been provided by the private universities. Many inconsistencies and incorrect calculations were noted whilst the data was being compiled. Of fifty-three private universities, only sixteen supplied accurate calculations. These are included in the table.

Both public and private HE sector universities use their funds for similar expenditure items (salaries, teaching materials, etc). However, there were exceptions. Research grants received by public universities are not included (private universities do not receive research grants). The public university table shows that the per-unit

cost is the highest in the BBS Mujib Medical University (the figure is calculated without development expenditure. If such expenditure should be added, the cost would naturally rise).

Universities specialising in Engineering, Medicine and Agriculture are relatively more expensive. However, it is recognised that the cost of providing an education in these subjects is higher than in other subject areas. It is also worth noting that the private HE sector mainly offers programmes in Engineering, Medicine and Agriculture. In addition, private universities need to direct more capital towards the cost of their establishment (books and materials, computers, campus land, fulfilling requirements of the UGC) in comparison to their public counterparts.

Private universities generally operate from rented premises, and therefore a large proportion of their cost is attributable to the payment of rent. It was noted that, during the financial year 2002-03, one university paid 45.72% of its total expenditure on rent; the minimum noted within the universities surveyed was 17.63%. On average, rent accounts for 26.76% of total expenditure. In this respect, public universities fare well; the government provides them with a large campus and a good infrastructure with no rent payable. If the public universities were to estimate the rent that might be payable for their spacious campuses, their total expenditure would rise drastically. It may also be noted that, in owning a market, some of the public universities earn income from tenants (i.e. shop-keepers). In addition, many of the public universities receive donations from international and local donors (these days, a few private universities in Bangladesh are able to collect donations from international donors). The public universities have no need to spend money on advertising to attract students (although they still provide subsidies to canteens used by residential students), because of their heritage and non-user fees facilities. In contrast, the private universities must allocate a substantial proportion of their funds to advertising IKPV notes that private universities or institutions may reduce the cost per student if they could recruit sufficient students.

In spite of such circumstances, the average annual expenditure per student is lower at a private university, although exceptions may be found. The cost of producing a

graduate with a Bachelor degree from a private university,⁸¹ based on average expenditure, is TK: 164438.64.⁸² In comparison, the cost of producing a similar graduate from a public university is TK: 272508.50 (also based on average expenditure). This is because each public university suffers an academic *season-jam* whereby a four-year study programme takes at least five and half years to complete. These public university season-jams generate several questions: if each student is to spend an extra two to three years studying in HE, how is he or she to be funded for the extra years? Who is to support their parents in maintaining the family, and who will bear the educational expenses of any younger siblings?

Cautious utilisation of time and resources

Is a low graduate production cost an indication of a poor quality education, or of an efficient utilisation of time and resources? The analysis⁸³ that follows indicates that, by careful use of time and resources, progressive private universities and institutions can and do produce graduates at a low cost. However, some private universities and institutions claim to spend as little as TK: 10,000 per student per annum. It is unnecessary to point out that this sum is insufficient to produce a graduate of any quality (IPVHT, IKPV).

In order to examine the issue further, a comparison between the public and private sectors through analysis of annual audited accounts would be the preferred method of quantifying the type and level of expenditure. Unfortunately, within the scope of this research, it was not possible to collect the data and information required from audited reports, and therefore the interview and questionnaire format has been used as an alternative. Through the questionnaires, I familiarised myself with the common

⁸¹ It is important to note that the graduate production cost of HE institutions is less than private universities. Private institutions charge less tuition fees than universities do.

⁸² A few of the private universities charge TK: 50000-60000 for tuition in a year which may be reasonable compared with the expenditure needed in order to produce a graduate. Although some private universities calculate that they spend around TK: 40000-50000 in a year per student, they still charge TK: 150000-200000 a year per student. The Bangladeshi Private University Act states that a private university must be a not-profit organisation. In answering this issue, the entrepreneurs of private university say that only a few students pay the high tuition fees. They also claim to provide scholarships, and full and partial tuition waiver.

⁸³ Discussion follows concerning the utilisation of time and resources by the private HE sector, based on *progressive* private HE enterprises. The situation of purported private HE enterprises will not be taken into consideration in this part of the discussion: their role as part of private HE sector disadvantages will be examined in the next section.

factors surrounding the two sectors. I was then able to seek answers to specific questions during the interview seasons.

Data from the questionnaires will be used in the first part of this discussion. Subsequent sections will elaborate on the data and information received from interviews and observation.

Table: 23

	How do you feel about the utilisation level of your institution's budget?				
	Excellent	Bad	Good, but space for development	Very Bad	Other
PUHT	0	63.15%	31.51%	2.63%	2.63%
PVHT	23.47%	0	86.53%	0	0
PVHST	29.78%	0	70.22%	0	0

It is clear that the public university authority is imprudent when spending institutional budgets, as funding is from public funds. Conversely, entrepreneurs within private HE are cautious when spending their income as, firstly, the funds have to be earned in the first place and, secondly, exercising economies in expenditure will increase profit.

I endeavoured to find out how the private universities produce graduates at a significantly lower cost than their public counterparts. In order to carry out my investigation, I conducted in-depth interviews and made observations. The results are summarised below.

Junior academics at public universities claim that it is senior staff who are responsible for the imprudent distribution of funds. They claim that, when these senior figures were themselves in junior positions, they would struggle to maintain an upper-middle class lifestyle, and would undertake work in private projects in order to achieve this. However, upon gaining senior levels of authority, the work in private projects would cease – but their luxurious lifestyle would be maintained. As it is not possible to enjoy a luxurious lifestyle funded solely by the salary paid to a public academic, I felt the issue warranted further examination. During a frank discussion with an ex-vice chancellor of a public university, he made the following comment:

“Corruption and mismanagement of funds is not practised exclusively by the academics of public universities. Bureaucrats, doctors, police and customs officers, defence personnel and businessman: they all enjoy a luxurious life by taking bribes and by practising corruption and mismanagement of funds. Corruption is a national disease in Bangladesh. If each group of professionals can enjoy a luxurious lifestyle by practising corruption, the academics of public universities will do so too, since they are not out of the society. However, as an academic at a public university, the opportunity to take a bribe is almost nil. Senior academics are always occupied with the priorities of the university and do not have chance to work on private projects, and such circumstances lead them to practise corruption and fund mismanagement.”

This statement highlights a dangerous situation existing in Bangladesh. In addition, entrepreneurs of private HLIs and diploma institutions express a further area of grave concern. They claim that, as they are governed by a controlling body, they must provide bribes to the personnel of that controlling body

Other forms of fund misappropriation were found in public universities are found alongside the corruption. For example, the number of scholarships funded from university funds for the pursuit of HE by academics is very low. However, a significant number of public university academics, who maintain a good liason with senior officials, travel abroad to pursue HE at least once or twice during their careers. For this they receive funding from international scholarship providers (the Commonwealth, DFID, and British Council Scholarship). Although these scholars enjoy accommodation paid for by the fund providers, they continue to receive their university salary. By facilitating this paid study leave to international scholarship holders, public universities lose the use of significant funds. It is evident that a number of academics from public universities, having gained access through an immigration visa and settled in developed countries such as Canada and Australia, enjoyed paid study leave for the first few years of their emigration. The public university again loses valuable resources.

A further factor in the poor utilisation of institutional budgets is the involvement of teachers and students in politics. In Bangladesh, all of the public universities experience high volumes of political activity by both teachers and students (IKPH, IPVHT, IPVHST, IPUHT). Many public university teachers and students have become involved in national politics and, as a result, the major national political parties have established offices on the campuses. Teachers and students involved with the powerful political parties play an influential role in expending the institution's budget. In many cases, the funds are misused and both the teachers and students gain personal benefits.

The above factors outline the prime reasons for the high cost of producing graduates at public universities. The private HE sector is noticeably free from such unnecessary expense. With prudent fund management, students at progressive private universities or institutions enjoy air-conditioned computer laboratories and seminar halls, in marked contrast to the overcrowding and squalor on the streets below. In the university, students work at computer terminals with Pentium[®] processors and laser printers. Progressive private universities and institutions invest essential funds to improve and extend their libraries. Students enjoy spacious and well-stocked libraries with an extensive range of textbooks and selective, scholarly journals and periodicals. Entrepreneurs of private universities and institutions put effort into ensuring that time, money and resources are used expediently; many of the private universities and institutions have their facilities in continuous use, with daytime classes for regular students; classes in the evening and at weekends for professionals.

Should a classroom or office not be in use, administrators at a private university or institution will ensure that the consumption of utilities, such as electricity, ceases in that room. Conversely, the public sector has little regard for such concerns. The following observation was made during a visit to the VC's office at a public university. In an attempt to arrange an interview with this particular VC, I called on his personal secretary several times⁸⁴. On each occasion, the VC was out of the office, but the air conditioning and other electrical apparatus was switch on. Curious, I queried this with a messenger working within the office. He replied that it was the

⁸⁴ The VC has a few personal secretaries, some work in the office and others at home.

habit of that particular VC – the cooling equipment would run automatically in summer and, in winter, the heating.

It is clear that the private HE sector is cautious in its utilisation of time, money and resources – but it needs to be careful that too cautious a budget utilisation does not result in an over-tightening of the budget.

Graduating on time

In the private HE sector, producing graduates on time is one of its major successes, especially in university provision. To illustrate this, we need to look more closely at ‘season-jams’.

After Independence in 1971, public universities began experiencing a new problem: *season-jam*, and the problem continues to increase. By the late 1980s, the government became concerned about the fact that students at almost all public universities were taking at least six years, instead of the usual three, to complete a Bachelor (Honours) level programme.

Earlier, the universities of Dhaka, Rajshahi and Chittagong were responsible for controlling all affiliated colleges in Bangladesh that provided HE. The universities also had students of their own. A committee created to investigate the problem of season-jam found that management of the universities’ own students, as well as those of the affiliates, made it difficult to produce the graduates on time. It also became apparent that the behaviour of the universities towards the students of their affiliates could be known as ‘step-motherly’ (IUGC, IHPU, IMOIE). As a result, the committee recommended the creation of a new university to control the affiliates and, in 1992, the Bangladesh National University, was established. It promised to address the problem of season-jam within Bangladeshi HE⁸⁵. However, the continuing crisis of season-jam in the public universities proves that the decision was not the right one.

In addition, the committee paid no attention to ‘season-jams’ that took place at BUET, BAU and some other universities. These universities do not have affiliated colleges, therefore do not manage affiliated students. Yet, in spite of managing a

⁸⁵ It is interesting to note that the affiliates of NUB have also experienced a high volume of season-jam.

relatively small student population when compared with DU, RU and CU, they too experience huge season-jams. Whilst working with a large number of students is clearly one of the reasons that causes season-jam in DU, RU and CU, the committee failed to identify other key reasons. One of these is that, after independence and with the prospect of greater academic freedom, public university academics began to engage heavily in work outside of the university, such as consultancy or work with private organisations.

In addition, a significant number of academics and students began to be rewarded for their political prejudices. Consequently, teachers and students at public universities became increasingly involved in national politics. The now extensive involvement of teachers and students in politics has caused an atmosphere of unrest and violence in Bangladeshi HE. The circumstances outlined above resulted in all public HE enterprises in Bangladesh – the universities, institutions and colleges – to function ineffectively. Season-jam was the result. Private universities are naturally suspicious of such issues; by employing academics from their public counterparts and utilising time and effort effectively, they produce their graduates on time.

Campus security

Alam (2003) notes that Bangladesh student politics once played a constructive role in promoting national development and in the building of a substantial academic atmosphere in HE. Over time, however, a lack of proper direction and the misguided and corrupt influence of national political leaders has led to it becoming part of corrupt and contaminated national politics (IHPUS, IPUHT, IGUDPUH, IGUDPVH, IMOIE, IUG). It no longer plays any sort of constructive role in national development. It also degrades the academic atmosphere (IPVHT, IPHUT, IPVHT). There are currently students involved in politics at public universities who practise abominable activities. Alam (2003) explores the notion that students involved in politics are heavily engaged with '*Chadabasi*', '*Baridakhal*', '*Jamidakhal*', '*Nakalbasi*', '*Duinumbari*', '*Dhorson*' and terrorism. The activities often result in political clashes and physical fighting between rival groups. Every year, many of the 'general students', and also the students involved in politics, are shot dead on HE institution campuses during incidents triggered by student politics (see Alam, 2003). Bangladeshi newspapers report that at least 350 students were killed during 2004 in

separate incidents. Guardians and the students themselves are understandably made anxious by such circumstances (IPVHS, IPUHS, IGUDPVH, IGUDPUH).

In this context, it is important to note a comment made by an academic working in DU:

"I have been working with Dhaka University for the last eighteen years. I used to live in the university quarter located on the campus. I have seen how students are killed by unrest caused by student politics. This grave situation has forced me to rent a private property outside the campus, and to send my daughter to a private university."

The private HE sector is free from this threat, parents are therefore keen to send their children to private universities (IGUDPVH). Nevertheless, a few private universities and institutions are now beginning to experience a low volume of campus unrest that occasionally leads to classes being postponed. No students have been killed by campus violence in the private HE sector (DR).

The IKP reveals a reason for the creation of campus violence in private HE:

"In order to survive, they sometimes provide access to non-academic students who cannot cope with the pressures of the study programme. These students often engage with the activities of campus violence."

We may consider, then, that if the public universities provide access to excellent students, why do such students need to engage in politics or campus violence? To clarify the issue, data was gathered from a questionnaire put to PUHS and PVHS. It found that in the public universities, 99.32% of students have no background in student politics. It was therefore interesting to note that 73.76% of students became involved after enrolment (PUHS). On the other hand, 36.76% of students enrolled at private universities have a background of student politics and, after enrolment, only 12.32% of the students continue (PVHS).

It should be noted that all public universities and institutions permit student politics, whereas private ones do not. Some students studying in the private sector enrol on part-time courses (for instance, a short course, or a language course) with local public HE enterprises (university, public college, semi-government college) in order to be

involved in politics. It may be deduced that the academic atmosphere in public HE motivates students to become involved in politics, and that this sometimes results in campus violence. The stricter policies regarding student politics adopted by private HE result in a much safer campus life.

Good Service

The private HE sector continually seeks ways of providing better services to satisfy their 'customers' – the students.

Data from UGC annual reports from various years indicates that the teacher-to-student ratio is better within the private HE sector; students benefit from smaller class sizes. Many of the progressive private universities accommodate a high level of student participation in the learning process: students within the private sector are able to access their teachers' time frequently and can freely discuss queries and concerns, whereas opportunities for asking questions of teachers at public universities are restricted.

An academic also considers that credit scoring system introduced by private HE is beneficial for students:

“The introduction of an educational credit-scoring system in HE has been utilised extensively by private universities. The education credit system is a modern concept. Upon reaching a pre-determined level of credits during a semester, students must attend the semester's final examination. Therefore they are generally under some academic pressure and this encourages them to follow their study programme diligently. Conversely, in the public HE sector, a final examination to assess a student's performance is conducted at the end of the entire programme. As a result, students spend a very relaxed period during the initial and middle stages of their study programme – and this is when they are most likely to join with activities that lead to social decadence.”

One advantage provided by the HE education credit system is *exemption*. Students with professional experience, training and/or qualifications may be offered an exemption of a few credit points for particular subjects. Offering exemption to

genuine professionals provides the opportunity to achieve a degree in a shorter period of time. It also helps to produce a lower cost per graduate.

In classroom management and teaching practice, private universities use modern teaching techniques and equipment. Many of the progressive private universities and institutions use whiteboards and markers, overhead projectors and multimedia. The public universities still depend on chalk and duster. In private HE there is ample scope for the continual monitoring and evaluation of teacher and student performance, with students given the opportunity to provide feedback for the evaluation of their teachers' performance.

Public university academics actively promote private coaching for their students, so students in this sector are obliged to pay in order to purchase the private coaching from their teachers. Students of a Science faculty in public HE are very concerned with this issue – the students who receive private coaching from the academics are given good grades in practical test assessments. In private universities and institutions, private coaching is strictly restricted.

In the public universities, outstanding students may be prevented from studying their preferred course due to rigid admission tests, whereas private HE sector students enjoy freedom of choice in their selection of subjects and programmes. Freedom of choice sometimes results in a poor academic atmosphere. However, coaching centres have recently begun to offer *admission coaching* in order to help students gain access to a few private universities, which indicates that they are more interested in attracting outstanding students. One vice chancellor commented:

"We are strongly committed to collecting the brilliant students, but we don't deny freedom of choice. We offer scope to the scholars to study their desired subject."

Efficient Management Process

According to Kreitner (1999), management can be defined as "the coordination of an enterprise". Good coordination between personnel will assist the enterprise to function effectively. The findings in the table that follow illustrate that the level of cooperation between private HE sector personnel is better than that at its public counterpart:

Table: 24

	Cooperation level between academics and support staff in your institution				
	Excellent	Good	Good but room for development	Bad	Others
PUHT	0	0	44.24%	55.76%	0
PVHT	4.65%	0	69.76%	23.25%	0
PVHST					
	Cooperation level between academics and key personnel in your institution				
	Excellent	Good	Good but room for development	Bad	Others
PUHT	0	0	54.33%	41.39%	4.28%
PVHT	16.63%	38.59%	37.99%	5.21%	1.58%
PVHST	17.29%	28.39%	40.57%	12.18%	1.57%
	Cooperation level between key personnel and support staff in your institution				
	Excellent	Good	Good but room for development	Bad	Others
PUHT	0	1.99%	33.46%	59.46%	5.09%
PVHT	3.21%	38.11%	47.59%	10.99%	.10%
PVHST	1.5%	28.12%	50.17%	15.76%	4.45%

Academics at public universities claim that employees in the private HE sector are highly paid, and thus the level of coordination and motivation is satisfactory. The views claimed by public HE sector academics are falsified by other data, analysed below (PVHT). Although private HE sector employees do enjoy a higher consolidated salary, the total income of public sector employees is higher as they receive other benefits: free accommodation, paid study leave, medical allowances, pensions, travel allowances, the opportunity to work on private projects and take part-time employment (IPVT). Employment with the public HE sector must appear more attractive as, when resigning from private HE sector jobs, an employee will join the public sector if the opportunity arises.

It may be concluded that a good supervision system within the private HE sector results in an efficient management process.

Disadvantages of private HE

Established comparatively recently, the private HE sector is passing through what could be known as a learning process. As a new sector, many of its policy makers and entrepreneurs accept that there will be a need to rectify mistakes made along the way.

However, some scholars vigorously oppose this attitude. They argue that students always pay the penalty for mistakes made in education, and this ultimately hinders development of the country.

A number of mistakes already made in the private HE sector have been identified, and this has created a negative picture of the role it plays in education. Before analysing the issue, it is important to note that the findings are general disadvantages experienced across the private HE sector in Bangladesh, and that they may not be found in any one specific institution. The discussion that follows will identify these failings and disadvantages.

High Tuition Fees

Although 'per student' expenditure is lower at private universities and institutions in comparison to their public counterparts, some private universities charge high tuition fees. The imbalance between income and expenditure denies the *user fee payer* enjoyment of any benefits of the lower cost per student, whilst the entrepreneurs of private universities and institutions gain an unofficially high rate of profit. There is no prescribed tuition structure that the universities or institutions must follow, so tuition fees are charged whimsically. For instance, some of the private universities believe that high tuition fees will create a high demand in an elitist society: in contrast, others believe that low tuition fees will increase the size of the market. Annual tuition and fees at some elite private universities are almost US\$5,500. At the other extreme, tuition costs may be as little as US\$450. It is interesting to note that universities charging a very low tuition fee are unable to attract many students.

Student sponsors are aware that *elite* universities charging high fees do not necessarily spend a large proportion of their budget on education, but they still prefer to send their children to the elite university because of the access it will provide to an elite culture.

In a country where per capita income is estimated at US\$378 per year and where public universities are virtually free, the tuition fees charged by private universities and institutions are considered to be extremely high. The theory of economics demonstrates that the high price asked for luxury goods leads to high demand. Therefore, the attitude of elitist sponsors and universities suggests that HE is a luxury. This attitude is, however, dangerous when applied to education – education should be

a fundamental right. It is worth noting that the privileged individuals of society enjoy a higher quality of other fundamental and essential requirements: food, clothing, accommodation and access to medicine.

Non-qualified and under-qualified students

From the many different forms that private education may take up to primary and secondary level, for example, private coaching or tuition, private schooling, private tutors – privileged individuals in Bangladesh can access high quality education. This helps them to gain good grade assessments for their primary and secondary level education.

Once in possession of high secondary level grades, it is easier for the same individual to receive an offer to study a popular subject at HE. Availing themselves of these facilities, the ‘privileged’ individuals who failed to prove themselves as qualified for higher education are incompetent or have no genuine interest in pursuing education.

In Bangladesh, in order to enter the admission test for a Bachelor (Hon) degree, students must have an HSC, securing a second division or ‘A’ level in four subjects and with good grades. As the general standard of secondary education is poor, some students who hold this official prerequisite are not necessarily up to the challenges of HE. There is a critical need to examine the capability of students pursuing HE through an admission test.

The admission tests conducted in private universities/institutions are a paperwork exercise only, as most of them do not scrutinise students via their admission tests. Moreover, some universities provide access to candidates who have not passed either HSC or ‘A’ level (IPVHT).

This situation exists in the non-progressive private universities and institutions (OB). By providing access to incompetent students, private HE denigrates higher education and research. This will ultimately hinder development of the nation.

Although progressive universities try to attract students who are academically capable, they do also provide access to the less gifted students of dependents of

influential groups, such as high-profile political leaders, newspaper editors, high-ranking officials and academics.

A vice chancellor made the following comment:

“Without being an elitist university, we could not cope with the existing system of society. For instance, if elite people are involved with our university, no local ‘Mustans’ are able to take the Chada from the university. In addition, many of the private universities use public roads and streets as their car park: the involvement of the elite helps the private universities use public property. The involvement of the elite also ensures good logistical support in various aspects. In order to survive in a country of corruption and anarchy, we want to be an elitist university. Therefore we charge high tuition fees, since this is an important indicator of being an elitist university. I agree that a certain amount of tuition fees are required to provide a good quality education, but the fees we charge are too high.”

Lack of diversification

Although the Government recently focused on the wider availability of public HE, students who usually have access HE are those from urban areas. They will have received a better quality of education at primary and secondary levels. With the benefit of parental interest and a stable economic background, urban students may have been provided with private coaching by examiner teachers⁸⁶ in the form of a list of examination questions. This helps them secure a ‘*duinumbari*’ result (better performance). Such circumstances helps the urban student enter HE.

The decentralisation of public HE alone is not enough to secure significant access for students in rural areas. Students who have studied at secondary level in Dhaka (or in other major cities) occupy the places available in public HE. However, the decentralisation of public HE will at least provide some access to rural students – and rural students are gradually becoming more inclined to pursue HE.

⁸⁶ Teachers of secondary level selected by the education board to prepare questionnaires and examine papers for HSC and SSC candidates.

Name of Division	Number of Public Universities
Dhaka	11
Chitagong	2
Khulna	3
Rajshahi	3
Barishal	1
Sylate	1

UGC Annual Report 2003

Table 25: Public Universities by Division

Name of Division	Number of Private Universities
Dhaka	45
Chitagong	6
Khulna	0
Rajshahi	1
Barishal	0
Sylate	3

UGC Annual Report 2003

Table: 26 Private Universities by Division

Conversely, private HE denies any need for decentralisation. The private HE sector lacks diversity, both of location and in the courses and programmes offered (see: Appendix E). As well as hindering the development of education nationally, this lack of diversity creates problems in urban areas. This is discussed below.

Lack of diversity in location

Bangladesh has 64 district towns and is divided into six divisions. Many of the private universities are located in the urban areas of Dhaka. Private HLIs are, in the main, also located in Dhaka.

Private universities utilise the public roads for parking and rarely have open space available for the students, and this results in crowded streets. The authorities of some influential private universities often prohibit general traffic on the roads where they are situated and, as a result, people who live or have businesses in the area are

subjected to difficulties. In addition, the unauthorised use of roads by the private universities/institutions and schools creates traffic congestion in Dhaka. A Dhaka taxi driver observes:

“Earlier, there was almost no traffic on Kamal Ataturk Avenue. But now it takes more than an hour to pass along the avenue. If access to the road is closed to taxis by the security staff at the university, I have to pay at least TK. 20 to gain access, so I have no alternative other than to charge my customers more. If you want to go to Kamal Ataturk Avenue, you have to bear the additional expense and compensate for the loss of time.”

The capricious use of public roads by the private universities adds pressure to the crowded traffic system of Dhaka. Sound business policy decrees that goods and services should be located where the customers are, and so private universities are located in the elite areas of Dhaka. However, it should be borne in mind that students studying HE are adults and, as such, can live without their parents. If the location of private universities were diversified, students would benefit in a number of ways:

- Students could enjoy a spacious university campus life.
- The aspirations of students from different regions to pursue HE would increase.
- The most urbanised students would have the opportunity to become familiar with the lifestyles of other cities.

Lack of course diversity

IKPV claim that public universities in Bangladesh are not sufficiently diverse in the choice of courses and programmes they offer. Many of the universities offer programmes at Bachelor and Masters level, but certification is a neglected area. In addition, each university offers few programmes in which it is specialised. For example, BUET offers only engineering courses and programmes. The BAGU offers courses related to agro-science. None of the public universities offers Medical Science courses (at Bachelor level), but the BSMMU offers research programmes in Medical Science. Medical colleges offer undergraduate Medical Science courses in partnership

with the Ministry of Health. However, at the universities of Dhaka, Chittagong and Rajshahi, a relatively diverse choice of courses and programmes exists.

Although the choice of courses and programmes is limited at the public universities, they offer a wide range of subjects in their specific area of interest⁸⁷. For example, although BUET offers only engineering programmes, within the subject, it offers Computer Science & Engineering, Electric & Electronic Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Chemical Engineering, Urban Planning, Civil Engineering and Architecture. Similarly, BAGU offers a number of courses related to agro-science.

At the private universities, there is no diversity in courses and programmes offered. Many of them offer Bachelor level education in Computer Science & Engineering, BBA and MBA. They do not claim to be specialist universities⁸⁸ for Computer Science and Business and so, according to the definition of the university, it must have adequate facilities to offer a wide range of courses and programmes.

Poor academic atmosphere

Many of the private universities and institutions depend on being able to employ academics from the public universities. Academics employed in both the public and private HE sectors have a busy schedule, as they will be involved simultaneously within a number of the private universities. They allow insufficient time for each and fail to research their lesson plans, thus lessons in the private universities are sub-standard.

The private universities also provide good grades in order to satisfy their students and guardians, but without proper assessment (IPVHT, IPUHT, IPVHST). The private HE sector's students lack the academic capability to obtain good grades in an examination, but the high grades are necessary for them to be able to compete in the job market or to take up higher education, especially overseas. A student commented:

⁸⁷ It is important to note that the recent conversion of some engineering and agriculture institutions into universities has established some very small public universities for example RUET, Shre-Bangla Agriculture university.

⁸⁸ The name of some public universities defines them as special universities.

“I know that the good grade given by the private university is not valued in the local job market, but I will gain some advantage for my higher education and emigration.”

In order to examine this issue, the results were collected of five graduates of SSC, HSC and Bachelor who gained BBA from one of the prestigious public institutions, and also from one of the prestigious private universities

Table 27: Graduates from the public institution

Student serial	Total score in SSC	Total score in HSC	Result of Bachelor	Academic period for Bachelor Programme
01	870	876	GPA, 3.50	1998-2002
02	812	802	GPA, 4.10	1998-2002
03	775	734	GPA, 3.12	1998-2002
04	776	756	GPA, 3.50	1998-2002
05	670	689	GPA, 3.67	1998-2002

Table 28: Graduates from the private university

Student serial	Total score in SSC	Total score in HSC	Result of Bachelor	Academic period for Bachelor Programme
01	678	601	GPA, 4.70	1998-2002
02	612	590	GPA, 4.50	1998-2002
03	640	632	GPA, 4.76	1998-2002
04	578	509	GPA, 3.90	1998-2002
05	601	534	GPA, 4.80	1998-2002

The above comparison shows that public institution graduates gained higher grades at SSC and HSC when compared to private university graduates, but that private university graduates secured higher grades in their Bachelor degrees. This suggests that either the private university provided an education of excellent quality – or provided an artificially higher grade for their graduates. To examine this further, I contacted a director working with the ‘Islam Group’, one of the largest private business organisations in Bangladesh, who had employed graduates from the two

institutions. He said that the job performance of the public institution graduates was higher than that of those from the private university.

If a prestigious private university feels capable of providing artificial grades, it is easy to understand the position of a non-progressive private university.

A director working with a private HLI said:

“The chance to provide good grades to our students is limited in comparison to the private universities. However, we always try our best to utilise the limited scope available because, if we don’t provide good grades, students will not be motivated to study with us.”

IPVHT expressed their concern about this issue. They said that the entrepreneurs of private universities apply ‘psychological pressure’, insisting that high grades are provided to the students. In addition, many academics are critical of the teacher evaluation system that exists within private universities, whereby the students are primarily responsible for teacher performance evaluation.

A comment from an academic working within a private university is to be noted:

“Students often say to their teachers: ‘If you, as the teacher, give me, as your student, a good examination grade, I will give you a good teacher evaluation grade.’”

Under such circumstances, academics face many limitations in any attempt they may make to maintain a proper academic atmosphere.

Corruption was discovered in the awarding of degrees within the private HE sector, with PVHST claiming that private universities sell certificates to students. A member of support staff with experience of working with private universities said:

“Some private universities keep some blank spaces in their examination tabulation sheet so that they can award a back-dated certificate if anyone needs one.”

A key figure at a private university concurs with this statement, but claims that his university would only award a back-dated degree to someone with a substantial knowledge of and experience in a specific field. He added:

“Selling certificates is not a new concept only practised in Bangladesh – while I was in America, I noticed that universities would award degrees to professionals without providing any education. These days I often receive emails from international universities telling me I can buy a PhD degree from them.”

Internationally, research is considered a key element of HE, but Bangladeshi HE overall lacks research activities. The modest scope available to conduct research is, on the whole, contained within the public universities, especially DU, BUET and BSMMU. As teaching-based institutions, neither academics nor students have the scope to extend their knowledge through research at the private universities.

A few of the progressive private universities and institutions are committed to enriching and modifying their libraries and laboratories, constantly bringing them up-to-date with the purchase of modern equipment and new materials. Unfortunately, many private universities fail to do this. They may have a small study room, known as ‘the library’, which contains a few textbooks, newspapers, magazines and novels (OB).

According to the Private University Act, key people at a private university (vice chancellor, pro-vice chancellor, registrar and dean of school) are responsible for academic affairs. The entrepreneurs employ these key people but, as the employer, remain the more influential. Entrepreneurs are invariably from a business background, – philosophies of an entrepreneur and an academic towards the administration of an educational institution differ significantly; i.e. one group considers education to be social service which must have some moral and civic responsibilities, whilst the other group consider it as a business organisation, run in order to earn a profit.

This often results in a difference of opinion between the key people and the entrepreneurs, which taints the university’s atmosphere in various ways. For instance, academics at some private universities/institutions actively encourage students to cause unrest aimed at the entrepreneurs (IPVHS, IKPV), with the result that the universities are obliged to cease their regular activities. This scenario also means that some of the universities may be without a vice chancellor, or other key personnel, for

long periods. In some cases, incompetent staff are employed in key positions, as they hold membership of entrepreneur organisations. According to the UGC report, published locally, it is claimed that the position of vice chancellor is vacant in 27 of the private universities.

It may be concluded from the above that IKPV, IPVHST and IPVHT advocate that key positions should be held by the entrepreneurs. They argue that, since the entrepreneurs have a vested interest in their organisation, their holding of key positions will help the institution function more effectively.

Campus life

None of the private universities or institutions were in possession of their own premises whilst this research was being conducted, although some had purchased land in anticipation of providing a campus in the future. Many of the universities/institutions are situated in congested buildings. A few are based in flats within residential buildings.

At PVHS, 100% of the respondents agree that the sports facilities available are insufficient. Some private universities have facilities for indoor games (chess, for instance, and table-tennis). IKPV think otherwise. They claim that, as their students are from elite families, they are invariably more interested in playing video and computer games.

A vice chancellor said:

“Ninety-nine percent of the students at our university are interested in playing video and computer-games. We have sufficient facilities to offer computer and video games to fulfil the needs of our students. So if we buy equipment and rent a field for outdoor games, it will be a programme for wasting money and time”

This is not a positive approach – it can be assumed that students may extend both their mental and physical fitness through extra-curricula activities such as sport.

Facilities for the practice of cultural programmes are mostly neglected in private HE. However, it is interesting to note that a significant number of students are involved in some form of cultural affairs, and that many of them have an affiliation

with local cultural clubs and organisations. Another point of note is that 76.32% of PVHS are fond of Western culture, compared to 36.23% of PUHS (PVHS, PUHS). In Bangladesh, affluent people believe that practising a Western culture carries prestige, as Western countries are considered culturally developed.

Teacher mobility

Teachers frequently move from one institution to another, and students complain that teachers often move during the central or final stages of a programme, forcing them to complete the final stages with an unfamiliar teacher (IPVHS). It can be difficult for students to cope with a new teacher, as he or she is likely to adopt an approach or style of teaching within the programme that differs to that adopted by the previous teacher.

IKPV note that inexperienced but outstanding graduates who deserve an offer from public enterprises are usually recruited to the private HE sector. Then, when they receive an offer from the public sector, they resign.

A point made by the director of an HLI offers an explanation as to why teachers move during middle and final stages of a programme:

“Teacher movement from the private to the public sector is a concern. But the major concern is that a few of the private universities/institutions offer high salaries to teachers who are employed in other private universities, subject to conditions. The main condition is that the teachers must attract a good number of students from the institution where they were employed earlier. Some students become a fan of a specific teacher. Teachers who moves in the middle or last stages of a programme will find it easier to take the students with them.”

However, lack of job security and little opportunity for career development, along with misconduct by the entrepreneurs, obliges some academics to change jobs frequently (IPVHT). A teacher expressed her concern:

“Jobs in the private HE sector are more challenging and harder work. The payment is comparatively low and there is no chance to earn extra

money by being involved with other organisations. The bossy attitude of entrepreneurs is simply horrific. There is no opportunity for study leave or to gain national or international scholarships to take HE, as most of the scholarship funds are made available to the public academics and bureaucrats. Under these adverse conditions, I don't consider it a transgression if someone changes their job to earn more money."

Many teachers do acknowledge that their mobility creates problems for the students, and that their perhaps unethical attitude may influence the developing character of the students. However, they feel they have little alternative other than to take the opportunities that are available to them.

Unfair competition in private HE

Unfair competition is found in the private HE sector. IPVHT and IPUHT believe that the ungoverned expansion of private HE, and the establishment of extraneous institutions, has forced the institutions to engage in unfair competition.

Some of the private universities began their operations as recently as 2004 and yet have already conferred Bachelor degrees. So how do these private universities confer a four-year degree within such a short period? These are the universities that had difficulty in attracting students, with most students available for HE already enrolled with universities or institutions established earlier. The universities, in particular those established between 2002 and 2004, undertook illegal practices to recruit students.

According to education law in Bangladesh, if a student wishes to transfer from one institution to another, they must have a transfer certificate (TC) from the existing institution. Once the TC has been supplied, the student can apply for admission to the new institution. Upon receiving the application, the new institution writes to the existing institution seeking permission and a reference. When authorisation from the existing institution has been obtained, the new institution can enrol the student wishing to be transferred.

However, some of the private universities pay no attention to this regulation. Students enrolled with a private university or institution were tempted to move to one of the newer institutions by an offer of illegally applied advantage. For instance, a

second-year student studying in a private HLI would be offered a place in the fourth year of a newly-established private university. Some of the private universities offer places to students who do not hold the necessary prerequisite qualifications for the specific course for which they are seeking enrolment.

Furthermore, students are not provided with a cohesive policy, nor any rules or regulations, for exemption from the UGC, but exemption is offered despite this and therefore is not always given to the appropriate students. This lack of respect for law and tradition used to draw students into some private universities has forced almost all private HLIs to cease operation because, as organisations controlled by the principal, they are unable to provide such illegal advantages to students.

As stated earlier, the involvement of the elite helps private universities/institutions to practice illegal activities. Many private universities/institutions provide admission and scholarship to the dependents of the elite. Private universities also provide access and scholarships to actors, actresses and models, as the involvement of such artistes is a good advertisement for the university.

The law states that private universities should provide a full scholarship to the 5% of students who are financially poor but academically brilliant. IPVHT and IPVHST state that, by providing the scholarships to the elite, private universities are disobeying the law. There are academics who vigorously oppose the scholarship system. They insist that entrepreneurs do not provide the scholarships from their own pockets, and therefore the provision of scholarships puts an unfair burden on the students who pay fees. Students also complain that the children of influential parents or actors, actresses and models, for instance, are supplied with good examination grades.

College teachers are employed as agents of private universities and institutions and are paid commission for their services. These college teacher agents often fail to tell the whole truth about all aspects of any given course, such as its prospects, or the course facilities available, in order to motivate potential students to apply to a particular institution. Once more, unethical practices degrade the ethical considerations of academia.

Some private universities with connections to the government use political pressure in an attempt to stop their competitors' operations by offering bribes to the officials of UGC and MOE (see: Chapter 8).

Misleading

There are students that have been the victims of fraud at the hands of some of the private universities and institutions.

Many of the private institutions, especially in university provision, claim that they maintain a close relationship with an overseas university, and that their students will be able to transfer their study credits to a university in a developed country such as the USA, UK, Canada or Australia. Sixty four percent of students say that, before admission, they were assured that they would be able to transfer their full credits to an overseas university. The remaining 36% say the issue did not arise during admission procedures (IPVHS). However, 69.68% of students say that, once admitted, they found there was no collaboration with overseas universities and that they were unable to transfer their credits (IPVHS).

Some of the foreign universities were contacted to seek information about their purported Bangladeshi counterparts, and the replies confirmed that they do not have Bangladeshi counterparts. However, it is important to note here that some progressive private universities do maintain a very healthy collaboration with international academies of repute.

The notion of franchise provision is a complex issue in international HE. There are no internationally-recognised universities operating in Bangladesh apart from the purported international providers (i.e. the West Coast University, American University, The University of North America etc.). Their main function is to delude students, and it is therefore of no surprise that, after operating for a few months or years, the franchise providers change the name and location of their institution.

The provision of scholarships is a delicate subject. The ethos of a scholarship is that it is awarded to the academically bright student on merit. In Bangladesh, however, it is unfortunate that the awarding of scholarships is a business tactic for the private

institutions, with many institutions offering scholarships in order to attract students when they experience difficulties within the business.

In addition, the terminology used in the scholarship clause of the private universities and institutions promotional material is confusing. Students of a university claim that the university promised to give scholarships to ten students in each department, according to merit. Now the authority denies any such promise was made, claiming that scholarships were promised to the top ten students *within the entire university* if they secure a GPA of 4.90-5.00. A similar situation can be found in most of the private universities and institutions. The universities and institutions also supply misleading information in their promotional material with regard to the facilities available.

Summary

Discussions indicate that the major advantages and disadvantages of private HE in Bangladesh are similar to those of other developing nations, as discussed in the literature review chapter. But the levels of corruption, both general and political, are unique to this project. This is an issue for serious consideration. If a sector is governed by corruption, how can that corrupt atmosphere provide a stable arena for the provision of a quality education for students and assist with their development as significant players in national development?

I argue that the level of influence of corruption on national development within the education sector is unacceptable. Education is the key to national development. It is perhaps too early to make an overall judgement, as the sector began operating comparatively recently. However, the negative impact of corruption has already been noted. In order to provide substantial HE to our young learners, action must be taken immediately to ensure adequate government and regulatory control.

The purpose of educational governance and regulatory control is to establish a substantial education system. In order to do so, educational governance always addresses the difficulties experiencing within the sector. Moreover, it also ensures more firm advantages, so the sector can work well. The main objective of this research is to look at how a good governance can ensure a substantial private HE

system so before writing chapter 8, chapter 7 has analysed the findings presented at chapter 6 in order to explain the advantages and disadvantages of private HE.

Chapter 8 – Governance and Regulatory Challenges

Introduction

The term ‘governance’ covers the formal and informal arrangements that facilitate HE institutions to make decisions and take action. It includes external governance, which refers to relations between individual institutions and their supervisory staff; and internal governance, which refers to the lines of authority within those institutions. There is a considerable overlap between governance and management; the latter is seen as the implementation and execution of policies. It is dealt with separately under ‘Tools for Achieving Good Governance’ (see: page 59).

Formal governance is official. Explicit informal governance refers to the unwritten rules that govern how people relate to each other within HE: the respect accorded to academics and administrators, freedom to pursue research and traditions of student behaviour, etc. It is important to articulate the rights and responsibilities of the various participants and to establish guidelines that will determine their interaction in a manner conducive to a quality HE (see: page 59-62).

Having defined the term ‘governance’ this chapter addresses the following research questions:

- How is the present governance and regulatory system of private HE sector in Bangladesh set up?
- Who is involved in decision-making in the institutions of private HE?
- What will be the future challenges for governance and regulatory control of the private HE sector?
- What will be the strategy to face the governance and regulation challenges for the government and private HE sector?

To answer the above research questions, analysis of different Acts and Ordinances will be used as the main source of data. This will be supplemented by other sources (interviews and observations). The first section focuses on the current set up of governance and regulatory systems of the private HE sector in Bangladesh by analysing the existing laws, rules and regulations (Act, Ordinance). The second section explores who the decision-makers are in different types of private HE institutions. Sections 3 and 4 examine the challenges that must be faced to ensure

good governance and regulatory approach, and a way of addressing those challenges. The final section will offer a summary.

Present governance and regulatory system of the private HE sector

The rules and regulations set up for governance of Bangladeshi HE are similar to those of HE in India (IPUHT, IHVHT, IUGC, IMOIE) although huge differences exist between the processes of educational governance and of the countries as a whole⁸⁹. Although governance between countries differs, I have examined a few international HE Acts (China, India, Russia, Australia, South Africa, Bulgaria), focusing on private HE provision, in order to examine issues of governance and regulatory challenges. This insight into international private HE provided me with an idea of the challenges that face governance and regulatory control, and strategies that might be necessary to face the challenges. The review of the international HE Acts also provided me with an excellent opportunity to ask pertinent questions of policy-makers and entrepreneurs in the Bangladesh private HE sector as the research fieldwork was conducted.

It is publicly acknowledged, particularly by academics involved with opposition politics, that the Government has taken steps to close HE institutions operated by their opponents (IKPV, IPVHT). An academic at a private university offers his view:

"The role of the present Government is a confused one when it comes to operation of the private HE sector. The present Government came to power in late 2001. Between then and mid-2003, they were too busy to expand the sector. However, they have recently been attempting to impose strict rules and regulations in order to approve new private

⁸⁹ India is country divided into 21 states. In India, there are two types of governance process: the Federal Government and the State Government. The rules and regulations set up for Indian higher education have ensured that both State and Federal government are involved in the governance process. For instance, the UGC, a Federal institution, works as a regulatory body for the institution of higher education in Indian. However, the main objective of Indian UGC is to design a brief policy and regulations in order to guide the institutions of HE through State Higher Education Authority, as universities receive funds from State Higher Education Authority. In Bangladesh, there is no provision of State Higher Education Authority as it does not have any state. Bangladeshi UGC designs the policy and rules copying the rules and regulations followed by the Indian UGC, but it should be borne in mind that the Indian UGC works as federal body, whereas Bangladeshi UGC is exclusively responsible for controlling the institutions of HE. As such, a simple copied version of Indian UGC policy cannot offer a comprehensive solution for the Bangladeshi system. In addition, Indian higher education policy is not excluded from the debate of weak governance processes.

institutions of HE, and to control and monitor those that already exist.” (IPVHT).

In 2004, the UGC proposed a Private University Act that was scheduled to become law in the parliamentary season of that year. However, the Act has yet to come before parliament. Even so, two new private universities were registered in 2004 and 2005 under the old Act, one of them owned by the President of the State and the other by a ‘controversial religious group’. This generated some debate. A member of the support staff working with the UGC made following observation:

“Few proposed private universities owned by people involved with the present government applied for registration. After approving registration of the proposed universities, the new Private University Act will be legislated thus: it is assumed that the new Act will be passed in 2006, as there will be a general election in 2006. However, if the present government is not returned to power, their successor will have to follow strict rules and regulation to establish a new private university owned by the people involved with the politics of the successor.”

The following discussion is divided into four sub-sections. In the first section, the governance and regulatory approach for private university provision is analysed. The remaining sections cover the governance and regulatory approach for institutions working in collaboration with the Directorate of Health, the NUB and with the BTEB, respectively.

Private University

Although the idea of establishing private universities was conceived in the early 1980s, due to social and political upheavals almost a decade passed before the idea was formalised by an Act of Parliament in 1992. In 1998 some minor amendments, generally corrections to the language, were made. As the proposed Private University Act has yet to become law, it is difficult to consider a specific Act (1992 or 2004) to analyse the present setup of governance and the regulatory approach of the private universities. The UGC Chairman said:

“The proposed Act will become law, as there is no alternative for control of the sector without it”.

Although the Private University Act 1992 is currently the official document providing the parameters of governance and regulatory control of private universities, the UGC chairman, Minister and State Minister of Education are all committed to the proposed Act therefore I will use it as the focus of this discussion. However, the analysis will look at a blend examine of 1992 and the proposed Act. It is important to note that the proposed Act incorporates everything in the 1992 Act but adds further clauses and conditions to impose stricter regulation. If the proposed Act fails to control and regulate the sector, there is little hope that the out-of-date Act can achieve the same, given that educational governance of the country has been identified as being at the top of the bribery and corruption stakes.

What follows is a critical analysis of the Act, a translated version of which is attached (Appendix E). Sections shaded in grey or in the footnotes highlight differences between the Private University Act 1992 (amended 1998) and the proposed Act. The overall structure of both Acts, and the structure and grammar used within it, is weak and unclear, leading to ambiguity. A better formulated structure and a review of the grammar and sentence structure could eliminate the ambiguity.

A total of thirty-three clauses and several sub-clauses are included in the proposed Private University Act. The 1992 Act has twenty-one clauses and few sub-clauses. Both Acts generally concentrate on three areas:

- the legal basis and procedure for establishing a Private University
- the administration or officers of a Private University, and their roles and responsibilities
- The authorities of a Private University and their roles, responsibilities and jurisdiction (see Appendix E).

Legal basis

Operating a Private University without a licence is illegal. Clauses 3 to 8 of the Act define the legal basis and conditions for acquiring the necessary licence. The Private

University Act stipulates six major conditions for the setting up of a private university:

- The Private University should own no less than five acres of land. The proposed plans for the building infrastructure on the land are to be submitted for approval with the proposal. However, until such time as the infrastructure is completed,⁹⁰ a private university may be allowed to operate in rented property with not less than 250,000 sq ft of space.⁹¹
- If the university begins in rented premises, it must move to its own campus by the end of the third year of operation.
- A deposit of 50 million Taka (BDT) (for a university situated in the metropolitan area of Dhaka and Chitagong) or 30 million Taka (BDT) (for a university situated elsewhere) is to be paid as security in interest-bearing government bonds.
- Planned programmes and courses must be approved by the University Grants Commission before students may be admitted.
- Ten percent of enrolled students must be granted scholarships allowing them to study free of charge in order to provide for poor but meritorious students.
- A minimum of three faculties are to be incorporated. Each faculty is to have four departments.⁹²

Neither the 1992 Act, nor the proposed Act, determines the number of private universities needed to meet the above demand. The UGC and MOE have no plans or targets to establish a specific number of HE institutions within a defined time (IUGC, IMOE).

There are major weaknesses in both Acts:

According to the Private University Act, a private university may be situated anywhere in Bangladesh, and the need for diversification in HE is thwarted by the sector itself.

⁹⁰ A private university can take three years to complete the proposed infrastructure

⁹¹ The underlined sentences are included in the proposed act. The 1992 Act only stated that initially, a private university can be set up at any place on a temporary basis but within the five years, it must setup its own campus in its own land.

⁹² The underlined sentence is included in the proposed Act.

Neither Act stipulates any preferred minimum distance to exist between two HE institutions.

There is no indication as to the minimum and maximum number of students that may be enrolled in order to operate a private university.

The Acts provide no indication of the size of student population (with prerequisite qualifications) living in any particular area required in order to select an area for the establishment of a private university.

The Acts do not prescribe a tuition structure.

The Acts fail to define clear entry level qualifications for any specific course offered by a private university.

By taking advantage of such weaknesses, the number of private universities has increased imprudently, but within the remit of the Acts. Their uncharted expansion has encouraged a poor academic atmosphere and the creation of centralised HE, concentrated around Dhaka (see Chapters 6 and 7).

Clause 7(11) indicates that a private university established under the proposed Act is not entitled to offer a degree in Medical Science. This clause proves that the Act is not an entity in itself. If offering a specific degree by a university is prohibited, how do you define a private university? Therefore a private university established under the Act is not a *full-pledged* university (IKPV).

Clause 3(2) in the proposed Act is likely to cause difficulties. According to this clause, a private university must be a *not-for-profit* organisation. But entrepreneurs expect to receive some financial benefits from their organisations.

One entrepreneur made following comment:

“Entrepreneurs who invest time, money and resources in an enterprise expect to make a profit, and imposing such an unrealistic rule will simply induce them not to be transparent in their presentation of the university’s accounts. Naturally, non-transparent accounting does not provide accurate and adequate information concerning the earnings and expenditure of a private university: as a result it is impossible to calculate with any degree of accuracy the cost of producing graduates and the rate of return on investment in education. Additionally, if a

private university is officially declared a for-profit organisation, the government can impose a tax. As entrepreneurs are obliged to bear their losses, it is logical to gain profit. Otherwise they cannot subsidise losses when the universities are in crisis. ”

The proposed Act brings confusion for the franchise provider. The 1992 Act made no mention of the operation of foreign universities or of franchise provision. The proposed Act corrects this omission and indicates that, in order to establish a foreign university, entrepreneurs must abide by the rules and regulation stipulated within the new Act. This may lead to problems for foreign universities or franchise providers beginning their operations before the new Act becomes law. The UGC is advising that the prior operation of foreign universities or franchise provision is illegal; therefore any diplomas awarded are null and void. This generates an interesting dilemma. The introduction of private HE in Bangladesh was facilitated by franchise provision in the early 1980s. What, then, is the validity of diplomas awarded to ‘franchise provision graduates’ already out in the labour market?

Administration

The administrative set up required of a Private University, include the position of full time officers, recruitment procedures, and specific roles and responsibilities are denoted, is included in Clauses 9 to 14 of the Act.

The 1992 Act identified seven key positions for administrative functions. The proposed Act adds a new position, that of Director (Finance & Accounts). The administrative structure of a private university, according to the Act, is outlined in the following ‘Organogram’ (see: figure 34). The Act denies representation of entrepreneurs in the administration of a private university. The President of the State is the chancellor of all private universities; the vice chancellor (the main executive officer) is selected by the chancellor.

The founders or entrepreneurs of the university naturally hope to hold the prime positions. An entrepreneur commented:

“Within the scope of the Act there are no key positions that may be occupied by a founder member or entrepreneur. This situation forces the

entrepreneurs to find a way of recruiting 'incompetent professionals' from amongst the members of founding team to the key positions of vice chancellor, pro-vice chancellor and registrar."

The occupation of academic positions by business personnel has always been found to have a negative impact on an academic atmosphere (IPVHT). It has also been found that many private universities do not follow the administrative structure prescribed by the Act. A new Organogram has been created showing that the founder, or a member of founding team, is the main executive officer of a private university (see evidence: Appendix I). Infringing the existing law, some private universities have established an authority (i.e. founders, governing body, Board of Governors, *Porichalona Porshod*), identified it as the highest authority, and made the entrepreneurs or founders members of that authority (see evidence: Appendix I). The Private University Act does not approve of such an authority, nevertheless the vital role of university administration is enacted thus (see more: Appendix I).

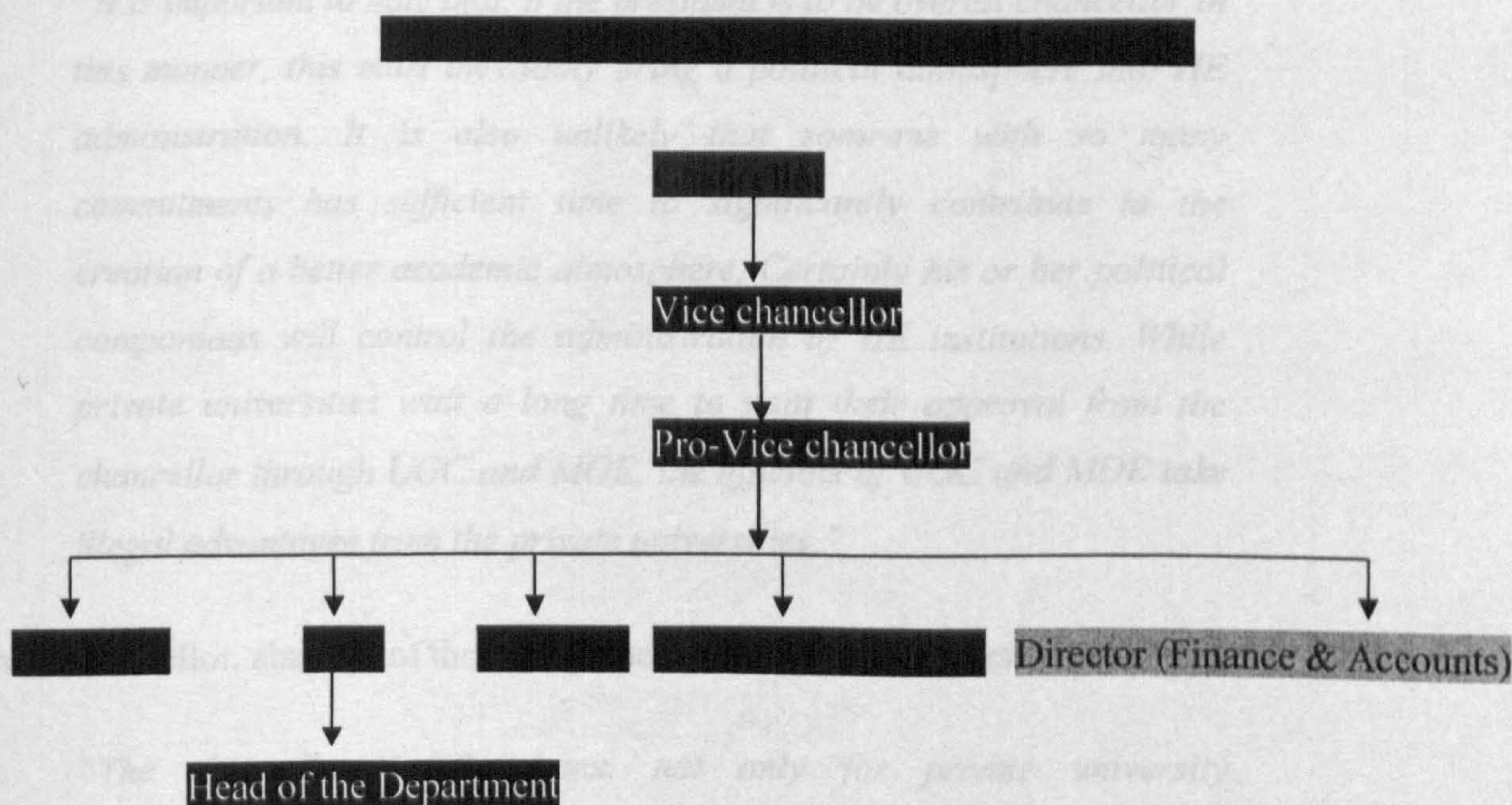


Figure 34

Clauses 10 to 14 explain selection procedures and responsibilities for the key position holders. Three positions are covered: chancellor, vice-chancellor and pro-vice chancellor. The Act stipulates the length of employment for these positions to be four

years, but says nothing about renewal. As no renewal guidelines are provided, some private universities have had the same person occupy the same key position since the universities were established in 1992.

Clauses 14 and 15(G) are very confusing. Both clauses discuss the *selection committee* and its formation, but the explanation given in each of the two clauses differs (see Appendix E).

The post of chancellor is a vital position in any private university. The chancellor is responsible for the recruitment of key personnel and makes the final decision in problem-solving, or where critical situations arise within either a specific university or the entire sector. The President of the State is the chancellor of each private university, and as such is chancellor not only of the 55 private universities, but also of a few public universities.

An academic illuminates an interesting point:

"It is important to note that, if the president is to be overall chancellor in this manner, this must inevitably bring a political atmosphere into HE administration. It is also unlikely that someone with so many commitments has sufficient time to significantly contribute to the creation of a better academic atmosphere. Certainly his or her political companions will control the administration of HE institutions. While private universities wait a long time to gain their approval from the chancellor through UGC and MOE, the officials of UGC and MOE take illegal advantages from the private universities."

A vice chancellor, also one of the entrepreneurs at a private university notes:

"The chancellor is the apex, not only for private university administration, but also for the process of governance within the entire sector. Gaining access to the time of the president is time-consuming and enormously bureaucratic: as a result most of the private universities are forced to either not follow the prescribed administration procedure, or to make an unwritten procedure of administration by illegally managing the officials of UGC and MOE."

This model, where the Chief of the State (Prime Minister, President) occupies the position of chancellor, is no longer appropriate for a country with such a large population and where there are a significant number of universities operating. The model is not used in developed countries such as the USA, UK, Australia and other European countries, and should be discarded in Bangladesh.

Authority

Clauses 15 to 19 explain the different authorities of a private university, the selection process for its members, and their roles, responsibilities and jurisdiction. The Private University Act 1992 designated six positions of authority for a private university; the proposed Act, in order to remedy an ambiguity, has seven. The 1992 Act failed to detail membership of the authorities outlined; the proposed Act remedies this (see: Figure 35).

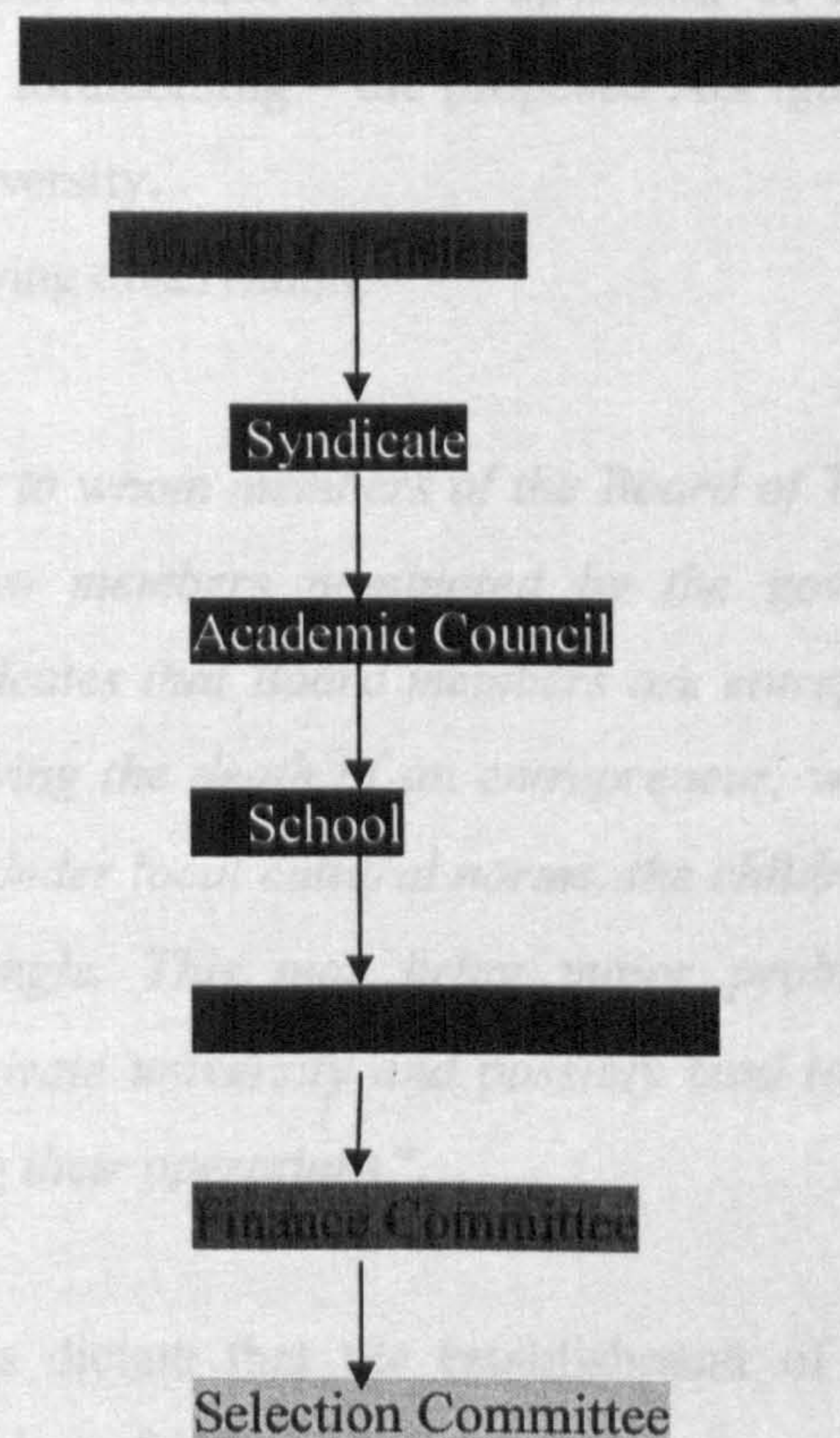


Figure 35

Board of Trustees

A Board of Trustees is usually made up from of a panel of entrepreneurs, however as no clear direction is given in the Private University Act about its formation (see Appendix E, Clause 15(A)). Moreover, the Act provides no clear idea of ownership of a private university. According to local law, no one person is the outright owner of an organisation operated by a Board of Trustees. Historically, it has been found that, whilst a few Boards of Trustees are formed with the donations of affluent people, many Boards have been formed following the death of an affluent person with no legal progenies to inherit their property. The unclaimed property and establishments then operate under the 'Trustee' provision as a not-for-profit organisation. Conversely, if an organisation operates under the Private Company Act, the legal progeny will be the future owner(s) following the death of the present owner(s). If there are no legal progeny, the private company is usually operated by a Board of Trustees. The most dangerous scenario for the operation of a private university through Trustee provision is forthcoming – the proposed Act ignores the importance of ownership of a private university.

An entrepreneur made following observation:

"The Act is unclear as to whom members of the Board of Trustees are to be, except for the two members nominated by the government. The situation currently indicates that Board members are entrepreneurs: it is of concern that, following the death of an entrepreneur, who is the next member likely to be? Under local cultural norms, the children or progeny of entrepreneurs wrangle. This may bring major problems into the administration of a private university and possibly lead to some private HE institutions ceasing their operations".

In addition, market forces dictate that the establishment of a large number of universities will force a number of HE institutions to cease operation due to student shortages. Should this happen, the future of the existing students is put into jeopardy. Equally, graduates from collapsed universities will suffer loss of social prestige. The cessation of business operation renders its employees unemployed, but the adverse consequences of a university ceasing operation are much further reaching. Such an act

will introduce a period of frustration for both past and present students that can only have a negative impact on the development of education as a whole. And the people employed by the university become unemployed.

Syndicate

The explanation of the roles and responsibilities of different authorities within a private university shows the *syndicate* to be the highest authority. This body has no representation from the entrepreneurs.

Clause 15(B) states that, out of fourteen syndicate members, three are to be selected by the Board of Trustees. It is important to note again that the format for the formation of the Board of Trustees is confusing, and it may be deduced that the Act denies the importance of entrepreneur representation in the syndicate.

The vice chancellor is chair of the syndicate, and his/her role is critical to the syndicate's formation. Syndicate membership is valid for three years, but the Act does not indicate what should be done if a place becomes vacant due to death or the retirement of a member. This omission needs to be rectified.

Academic Council

The authority which oversees the academic aspect of a private university is the Academic Council, of which the vice chancellor is the key person. The Act again ignores the importance of representation of entrepreneurs on the council. Membership is valid for three years but again, as with syndicate membership; the Act fails to provide guidelines for filling a vacant position.

The roles and responsibilities of other bodies (i.e. Curriculum, Finance and Selection committees) are not covered within the Act. Little information is offered concerning membership of these committees, again showing that representation of entrepreneurs is not given due consideration.

In conclusion of this sub-section, it can be argued that public and private universities are two very different entities, and that this Act fails to recognise that a private university is not a public property. The owner of the public property is the State while the owner of a private property is the private individual. Inevitably the policies and governance of a State organisation will differ from that of a private

organisation. It is understood that 'for-profit education' is not culturally accepted in Bangladesh, and thus the policies of those who created the governance and regulations for private universities are followed by the public universities. But denying the existence of the entrepreneurs is unethical, and it is not possible to ensure a sound regulatory approach by denying the existence of the funders. Under such circumstances, the entrepreneurs will be forced to ignore the prescribed regulatory process. Even though many entrepreneurs are felt to be incompetent, they hold key positions in private universities, yet the Act denies their representation in the governance (IKPV, IPVHST, IPVHT). Nevertheless, if the entrepreneurs recruit vice chancellors and other key personnel, they naturally choose people who are ready to carry out their wishes.

The unrealistic rules and regulations also force entrepreneurs to search for weaknesses within the Act, or to handle the officials of the UGC and the MOE illegally in order to retain a degree of power in university management (IKPV). In order to illustrate this, I offer an example. According to clause 15 (2), a Board of Trustees can create any kind of authority felt necessary for the effective operation of a university, and with permission from the UGC. So, with UGC approval, the Trustees create different forms of authorities, and the membership of those authorities belongs to the entrepreneurs.

Clause 22 states that a private university should have a statute approved by the UGC. However, it is interesting to note that issues needing to be included in the statute are not identified in the Private University Act. Also, the period of validity of a Statute and the deadline for its submission is not included. It has been found that most of the universities are yet to submit statutes for UGC approval; only two private universities have prepared their statute (yet to be approved). This weak area of the Act, along with the help of politically corrupt HE administrators, enables the entrepreneurs to form different types of authority in order to retain governance and administrative control of their universities.

The steadily increasing conflict between entrepreneurs and the key personnel of a private university is also a result of bad governance as prescribed by the Act. Although the conflict is not yet serious enough to have had a marked impact, it must be a concern for the future (IKPV, IUGC, IMOIE). Entrepreneurs have claimed that

the UGC and the MOE are unwilling to establish moderate governance for the private university sector, as substantial and radical governance may limit the extent of the influence that the UGC, MOE and political leaders have with the entrepreneurs. Even if a university is an autonomous body, it is politically and corruptly controlled jointly by the UGC and the MOE (see: Figure 36).



Figure 36

Institutions working in collaboration with the Directorate of Health

Public or private institutions providing an education in medical science are controlled and monitored by the Ministry of Health & Family Affairs (MHFA) through the Directorate of Health. The private institutions that offer courses in Medicine and Dentistry leading to Bachelor and Masters level qualifications need to be affiliated with a '*concerned university*' after 'permission of operation' has been granted by the MHFA (see figure: 37). The term '*concerned university*' needs definition: a private medical college having 'permission of operation' from the MHFA and located in Dhaka region needs affiliation from the University of Dhaka in order to operate. Similarly, an institution located in the Rajshai region needs affiliation from the University of Rajshai. The institutions that provide diploma level education do not require such affiliation from a concerned university but they do need 'permission of operation' from the MHFA (see: Figure 38).

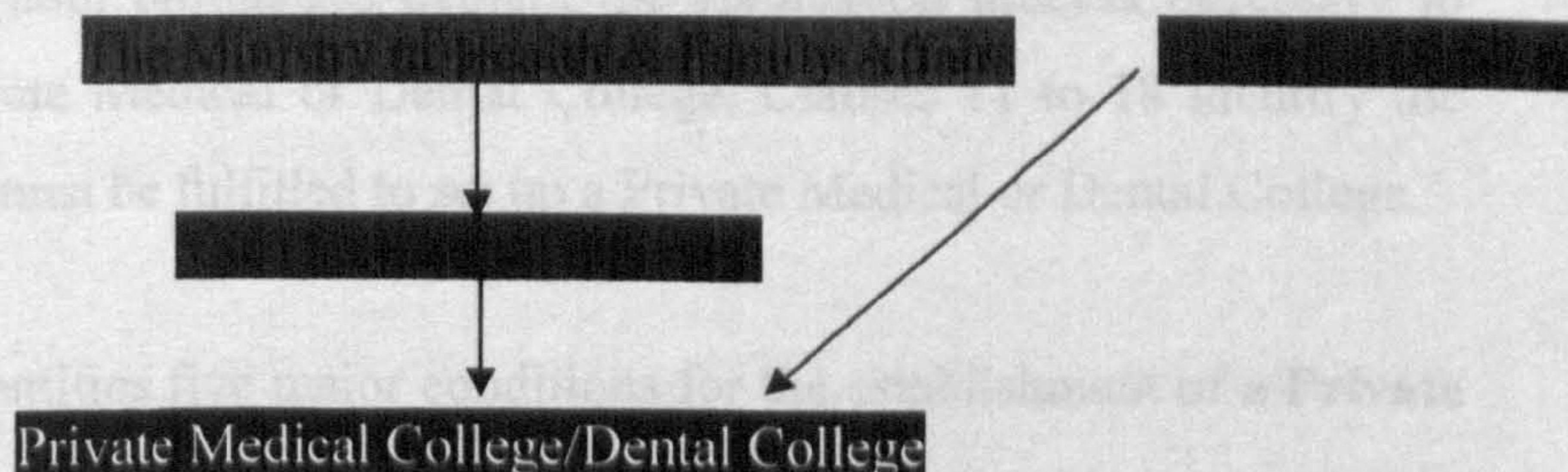


Figure 37

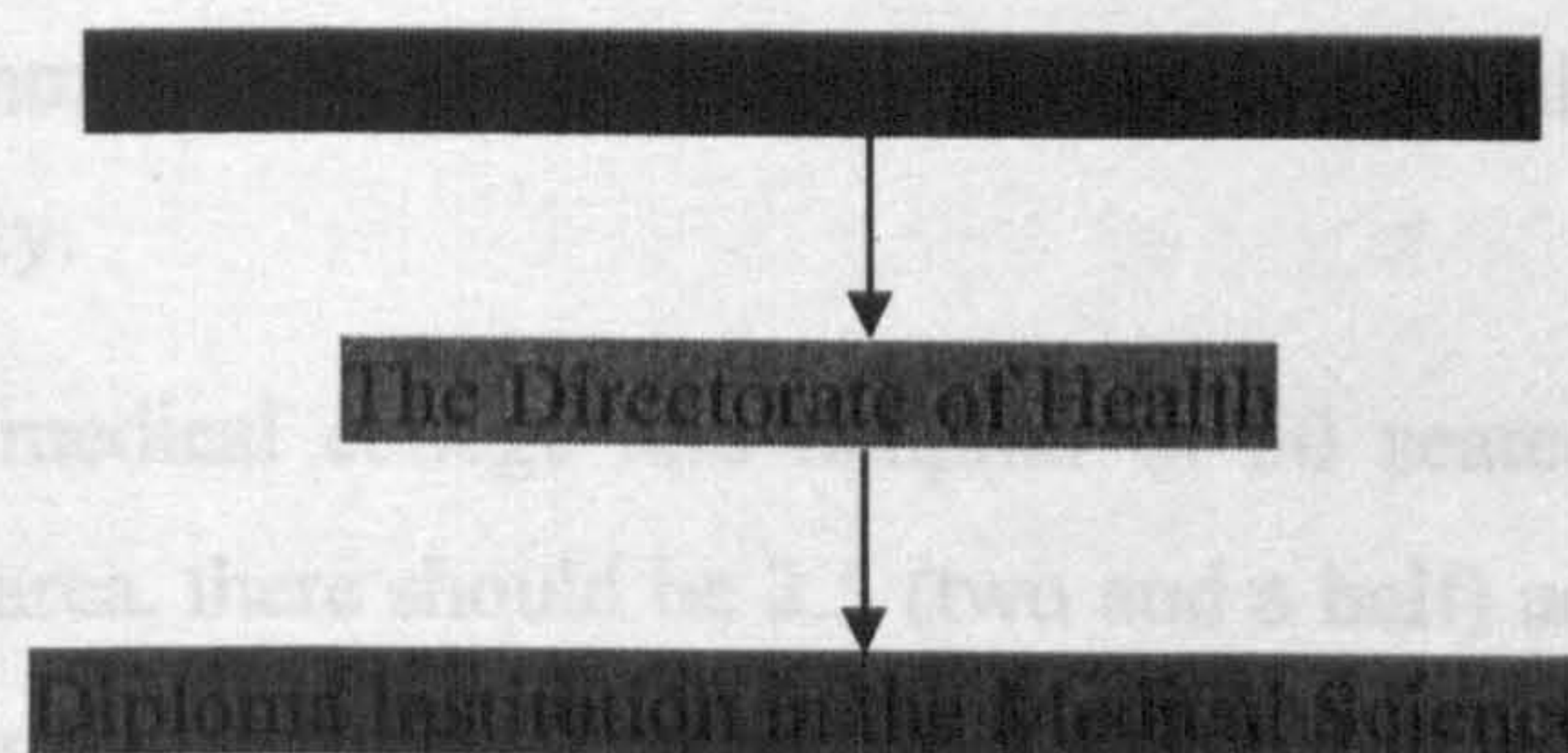


Figure 38

The year 2004 was a busy one for the bringing in of new legislation and regulations for the private HE sector. Not only did the UGC put together the proposed Private University Act, but the MHFA created two pieces of ordinance to control and monitor institutions providing medical science education. One was created to cover Private Medical College provision; the other Private Dental College provision (see: translated versions in Appendix G). These ordinances define the parameters for the governance and regulatory control of the two types of college. Before studying the two ordinances, it is important to note that none exist for *diploma institutions*.

Examination of the ordinances reveals that there is virtually no difference between the two⁹³, with the exception of clauses 12, 17 and 18 (refer: Appendix G). The structure of the papers (ordinances) is weak and incoherent, almost beyond comprehension. For instance, clauses 1 to 10 cover the application process necessary to set up a Private Medical or Dental College, but clauses 6, 7, 8 and 9 incoherently discuss the 'Organogram' of such a college. Clauses 11 to 18 discuss conditions to be fulfilled before setting up a Private Medical or Dental College, but the explanation of maintenance of accounts (clauses 15 and 16) is also incoherent. Overall, the ordinances have been carelessly produced and, as such, fail to meet even a minimum standard for examination. What follows is an attempt at critical analysis.

Clauses 1 to 10 of both ordinances explain the application process necessary in order to set up a Private Medical or Dental College. Clauses 11 to 18 identify the major conditions that must be fulfilled to set up a Private Medical or Dental College.

The first ordinance identifies five major conditions for the establishment of a **Private Medical College**:

⁹³ The Ordinance for Private Medical College and the Ordinance for Private Dental College.

1. A non-government medical college and hospital should not be set up in a rented property.
2. To set up a medical college and hospital of 50 seated students within the metropolitan area, there should be 2.5 (two and a half) acres of land, or for the college building 100,000 square feet (one lac) floor space, for hospital 100,000 square feet (one lac) floor space. Out of the metropolitan area, the college should have at least 5 (five) acres of constructable land of its own by purchase or as a gift. Later, if the number of seats is increased, land premises and other infrastructures are to be increased in proportion.
3. A fixed deposit of TK1, 00, 00,000/- (one crore) should be kept in any registered scheduled bank. There will be no consideration for drawing and disbursing of the fixed deposited amount. The interest on the deposited amount may be withdrawn at the end of the year in order for its transfer to the college funds. A certificate issued by the bank stating that without the permission of the Ministry of Health and Family Affairs, the said amount will not be withdrawn and utilised, must be submitted to the Ministry. No loan is to be taken against the fixed deposit.
4. According to the number of students of the non-government medical college, a hospital must be set up. The number of the beds of the hospital should be 1:5 (i.e. in a medical college of fifty students, there should be a hospital of at least 250 beds).
5. Before beginning the activities of the medical college, the activities of a 250-bedded hospital should be commenced. No application for permission for the college will be considered if the hospital is not in an operating condition. Five percent of hospital beds should be reserved for the poor with no rent.

Five major conditions are identified for establishment of a **Private Dental College:**

1. Non-governmental dental college and hospital should not be set up in a rented property.
2. To set up a Dental College and hospital of fifty seated students within the metropolitan area, there should be 1.5 (one and a half) acres of land, or for the college and hospital building 100,000 square feet (one lac) of floor

space. Out of the metropolitan area, the college should have at least 3 (three) acres of constructible land of its own by purchase or as a gift. Later, if the number of seats is increased, land premises and other infrastructures are to be increased according to the ratio.

3. A fixed deposit of one crore taka (TK 1, 00, 00,000/-) should be kept in any registered scheduled bank. There will be no consideration for drawing and disbursing of the fixed deposited amount. Interest on the deposited amount may be withdrawn at the end of the year for transfer to the college funds. A certificate issued by the bank stating that, without the permission of the Ministry of Health and Family Affairs, the said amount will not be withdrawn and utilised, must be submitted to the Ministry. No loan is to be taken against the fixed deposit.
4. According to the number of the students of the non-government dental college, a hospital is to be set up. The capacity will be 50 beds with modern facilities. Since dentistry is mainly based on outpatient services, the hospital will be set up as an outpatient unit. The number of the chairs of the hospital should be 2:1: that is, in a dental college of 50 students, there should be a hospital of at least 25 units and chairs.
5. Before starting the activities of the dental college, activities of a 50 bedded hospital should be commenced. No application of affiliation of the college will be considered if the hospital is not in operation. Five percent of seats of the hospital should be reserved for the poor with no rent.

The conditions for setting up either a medical or a dental college are almost identical so, if an institution wants to work in both fields, does it need to fulfil the conditions twice? In addition, if an institution begins as a medical college but later decides to offer dentistry courses as well, what will the rules and regulations be? No guidance is provided for institutions that wish to work in both fields. It has been found, however, that most of the institutions already established do provide education in both fields by fulfilling the conditions just once. The ordinances also fail to provide any explanation as to the criteria to be maintained by the private universities in order to have permission to offer courses in Medical or Dental Science. The weakest part of the two ordinances is that they fail to identify the number of private medical or dental colleges

required to meet existing demand. Clause 20 contradicts Clause 12: it is unclear about the space required for the college building and the hospital building. Operation of either a medical or dental college in rented property is prohibited; however, some of the colleges already established do operate from rented property. According to Clause 31 of the new ordinances, the institutions established earlier are given conditional approval and should follow this new legislation within next two years. In the meantime, they can operate with little regard for any rules or regulations. Nothing is said about the location of a college, and thus it has been found that most of the colleges are established on one floor of commercial buildings in Dhaka.

Clauses 19 to 34 outline areas under which a private medical or dental college can or cannot act, the purpose of which is to ensure a quality education. Clause 3 states that the private college can be operated under the jurisdiction of a trustee, foundation or private limited company, but Clause 27 contradicts Clause 3. According to Clause 27, the 'governing body' is the highest authority for the college's internal management and this must be formed under the guidance of the *concerned university* and the MHFA. It is important to understand that the procedure for forming a 'governing body' for an institution of HE was designed earlier specifically for the provision of semi-government institutions. However, political prejudices in the formation of governing bodies have contaminated the HE environment which has seriously degraded the quality of HE. In such circumstances, the model of *governing body* is completely unsuitable for a private institution. Members of politically-biased governing bodies invariably take illegal benefits from entrepreneurs (IKPV). Representation of entrepreneurs within the college management or authority has not been distinguished, and this is a major limitation of the two ordinances.

In conclusion, the ordinances are not clear enough and also fail to cover many areas relating to the governance and regulatory approach of a private medical or dental college (i.e. governing body, key personnel, and employment procedures). However, it must be acknowledged that they do impose certain rules and regulations that need to be followed.

HLIs working in collaboration with the NUB

Students studying with affiliates of the NUB are generally from comparatively underprivileged groups, and thus politicians and academics are careless in bringing

about a significant academic atmosphere in the NUB (IGUDPVH, IGUDPUH). The NUB does not habitually offer courses for the local community, but NUB affiliates offer undergraduate and postgraduate level education across the country. Many affiliates working with the NUB operate as *semi-government* provision and are located in different regions, both urban and rural. Some are fully funded by the government. A significant number of self-financing institutions were recently established to offer **Computer Science** and **Business Administration** programmes. However, due to the corrupt management at the NUB – the taking of bribes and the ongoing practice of a high level of corruption and operational irregularities – most of these institutions have been forced to cease operation.

In terms of student enrolment, the NUB is the biggest university in Bangladesh. The main source of income for the NUB is the fees charged to affiliates. The fees come from its huge student population, therefore the University Grants Commission (UGC) has a hard time controlling the NUB. The chairman of the UGC said:

“I tried to create a good atmosphere in the NUB, but completely failed to do so. As the NUB does not seek funds from us (though they should be controlled by the UGC), it doesn't bother to follow any of our instructions.”

Such circumstances cause much suffering for students from underprivileged family backgrounds, and for NUB affiliates.

There are no rules or regulations introduced by the NUB for the operation of its self-financing affiliates. However, in 2004 the NUB did outline some conditions to affiliate Bachelor-level programmes in **Computer Science** and **Business Administration** (see: translated version, Appendix H). Examination of the paper prepared by the NUB shows the NUB to be a careless and sloppy educational enterprise. The paper is ambiguous in its content, contains spelling and grammatical errors and, when regarded overall, makes little sense.

The paper outlines three major conditions in order to affiliate its **Computer Science** programme:

- To launch a Computer Science (Hon) course, the college must be situated or built upon the educational institution's own undivided and unclaimed

land. The college should have registered deeds and other necessary papers of the land. Usually the amount of land required will be as follows:

1-acre in the metropolitan area

1.25 acres in a municipal or industrial area

2 acres in other areas

- Besides the required rooms to execute administrative activities, there should be eight classrooms, each of size 700 square ft. In addition, there should be a separate room for teachers, a common room for students, a seminar room, computer laboratory and general laboratory.
- In each of the funds of the college – reserved and general, there should be at least TK: 1,00,000/- (one lakh) as a deposit.

The NUB has also outlined three major conditions in order to affiliate its **Business Administration** programme:

1. To launch a Business Administration course, the college must be situated or built upon the educational institution's own undivided and unclaimed land. The college should have registered deeds and other necessary papers of the land. Usually the amount of land required will be as follows:
 - 1 acre in the metropolitan area
 - 1.25 acres in a municipal or industrial area
 - 2 acres in other areas
2. Besides the required rooms to execute administrative activities, there should be eight classrooms each of 400 square ft. in size. In addition, there should be a separate room for teachers, a common room for the students, a seminar room, a computer laboratory and a general laboratory.
3. In each of the funds of the college – reserved and general, there should be at least TK: 1, 00,000/- (one lakh) as a deposit.

The conditions imposed for the two programmes, Computer Science (Hon) and BBA, cannot address the ambiguity. For instance, does an institution really need two separate pieces of land in order to operate the two programmes? Does an institution in

possession of a certain amount of land and securing certain facilities for two disciplines mean that is capable of operating the programmes? Moreover, the conditions as stated are valid for the operation of Bachelor programmes – does that imply that an institution must find a new piece of land and infrastructure to offer courses at Masters level? In order to provide an education in Computer Science, it has been indicated that the principal and vice principal should themselves have Masters degrees in Computer Science. BBA provision indicates that the principal and vice-principal should have Masters degrees in Business Administration. An interesting question is generated by these requirements – does an institution that provides education in both Computer Science and Business Administration need two principals and two vice-principals? The principal is the head of the institution; if an institution is required to employ two principals, which will act as the head of the institution?

Clause 12 decrees that the college will be directed by a governing body, but fails to outline the procedure for forming such a body (the traditional way of forming a body having been discussed earlier). The papers fail to cover the procedures for involving entrepreneurs in the college's management. It is not thorough enough in its approach to governance and regulatory control of the operation of a self-financing institution. If a comprehensive document (for example the Private University Act, Ordinance for Medical College/Dental College) controlling HE institutions is unable to do so, what hope is there for the lightweight ordinance that covers the NUB, the Number One corrupt university in the country?

Diploma institution working in collaboration with BTEB

The first laws for the operation of technical education were passed in 1967 when Bangladesh was part of Pakistan. The East Pakistan Technical Board was formed under the Technical Education Act 1967: it was later renamed the **Bangladesh Technical Education Board (BTEB)**. Initially, the main functions of BTEB were to affiliate, control and monitor public polytechnic institutions providing education in the local community, and some other government-funded technical education institutions and projects. Lately, it has started to affiliate semi-government institutions across the country. Recently it began promoting self-financing providers in order to

provide a technical education to the local community thus a significant number of self-financing institutions are now working in collaboration with the BTEB.

In 1996, the BTEB brought under its legislation a comprehensive ordinance in order to affiliate, control and monitor the private institutions working in collaboration with it, as it concentrated on expanding its affiliates through semi-government providers. These providers were considered 'private providers', and consequently, the ordinance has an inherent weakness for the governance and regulatory control of self-financing institutions. The ordinance has clearly explained three fundamental issues: the legal basis, the authority of an institution, and its governance and administration. It also covers every possible issue, such as employment procedures, the selection of the managing committee, and its roles and responsibilities, and the system for promotion of the employees, all of which are of concern to the government within an institution. Critical examination of the ordinance does not uncover any major weaknesses; it does, however, fail to define the roles and responsibility of the entrepreneurs in an institution's management. According to the ordinance, the 'Managing Committee' will be the highest authority of an institution working in collaboration with the BTEB. The ordinance states that the total number of members in the Managing Committee must be nine, in order to adequately cover the representation of teachers, support staff, student guardians, the local community and entrepreneur body. The Chairman of the Managing Committee is to be a government officer, for instance, a district commissioner or sub-district commissioner. However, it has been found that a member of the entrepreneur body frequently occupies the position of Managing Committee chairman.

The weakest part of the ordinance is that it fails to define the role and responsibilities of entrepreneurs in the management of an institution. Moreover, some of the rules and regulation stated in the ordinance may be appropriate to the operation of semi-government provision, but are unsuitable for self-financing provision (IKPV). In addition, the BTEB has not calculated just how many institutions are required to fulfil existing demand. There is a degree of corruption in the BTEB, and this is a barrier when attempting to ensure strict governance and control for the institutions working in collaboration with the BTEB (IKPV).

Who are the decision-makers in private universities and institutions?

This section investigates the principal decision-makers of the private HE sector in three parts. The first will analyse university provision; the second and third will explore HLIs and Franchise provision respectively.

University

According to the Private University Act of 1992, holders of the following positions will be the principle decision-makers in a private university

- (1) Vice-chancellor
- (2) Pro-vice chancellor (optional)
- (3) Treasurer
- (4) Dean
- (5) Registrar
- (6) Controller of Examinations
- (7) Departmental Head

The proposed Private University Act of 2004 adds one more position to those above, that of Director (Finance and Accounts). The Act also defines the term “authority” in a private university. According to the proposed Act of 2005, a private university must have the following authorities:

- (1) Board of Trustees (a recent addition to the proposed Act)
- (2) Syndicate
- (3) Academic Council
- (4) School of Studies
- (5) Syllabus Committee
- (6) Finance Committee
- (7) Selection/Employment committee

It is interesting to note that, although the notion of the two sectors (private and public) is completely different, the key positions and authorities are very similar. The only exception is within the authority of a private university, the position of *Board of Trustee*, which has recently been added to the proposed Act. As the key positions and authorities of the two sectors (which is principally applicable to the public sector) are alike, private universities face crucial challenges in governance and regulatory approach.

Decision-making is always guided by the employer, especially in private provision. It is important to know, therefore, how the positions and authorities (committees) are employed and selected. The phrase 'Board of Trustees' used by the Private University Act is a moderating phrase⁹⁴ in Bangladesh and legislators want to take advantage of this. However, the Board of Trustees can be outlined simply as Board of Directors. These are the entrepreneurs of the private university and the employers of key positions and authorities (committees) as outlined in the Private University Act.

DR, IKPV, IPVHT and IPVHST suggest that members of each committee are selected from key personnel and the Board of Trustees. A university is an autonomous body; therefore the key people and authority of the private university can make the most of its decisions without calling upon the UGC and MOE.

IPVHT, IPVHST, IUGC, IMOE, INUB, IBTEB and IKPV clearly state that decision-making is carried out by the Board of Trustees for the most part. IPVHT and IPVHST point out that the key positions of the private university (chancellor, pro-vice chancellor and registrar) are occupied by the entrepreneurs, their relatives or by their 'flatterers'. Moreover, a local newspaper reports that, in 27 private universities, the position of vice-chancellor has been vacant for a long time. Three vice-chancellors working within private universities demonstrate the idea that 'money talks'. One VC made the following comment:

"As we are paid by the entrepreneurs who share the profits and losses, we must be obliged to the entrepreneurs".

The entrepreneurs take a different view. One entrepreneur argues that:

"As the key people of private universities are salaried, they are not keen to involve themselves in discussions for university development. Good times and bad times in business are interwoven, but the key salaried people of private universities only work when times are good. In crucial periods they

⁹⁴ The majority of people understand that 'trustee' means charity organisation as earlier trustees were established by donors to society (i.e. Hazi Moshain, Khan A Sabur, Hazi Danesh). Moreover, as earlier trustee were established exclusively to help people, no strict rules and regulations were legislated for its operation. Lately, policy makers and initiators want to take advantage of the existing 'weak' trustee rules and regulations as it allows them to practice irregularities that lead to corruption.

move to other universities, and thereby becoming a threat to confidentiality and commercial sensitivity.”

The above quotation generates two questions:

- (1) Who are the key salaried personnel in the private universities?
- (2) Why do the universities recruit them?

The key positions in the private universities are occupied by the retired vice chancellor and known figures of public universities. Since the key positions in the public universities are thus limited, few public universities can not produce sufficient key people for 55 private universities. An academic also points out that:

“Academics retired from key positions at public universities are unusually offered consultancy posts in other organisations (donor agencies, for instance, or perhaps the position of high commissioner or ambassador in a High Commission or Embassy). In addition, many people who retire from public universities are too old to work.”

These people are targeted for key positions in private universities, because their name and fame is useful for the promotion of the private university business. OB also summarises that the Board of Directors within the private university is the domain for decision-making.

HLI and Diploma Institutions

No statutory rules and regulations exist for the operation of self financing institutions working in collaboration with the NUB & BTEB. However, private HE institutions and diploma institutions are guided, controlled and monitored by the same regulations created mainly for public or semi-government colleges and polytechnics by the respective controlling agencies, the NUB and BTEB. According to the regulations, the main decision-maker is the principal, who is assisted by the department heads. However, an academic made his observation:

“It is interesting to note that most of the self financing institutions, especially those offering higher learning provision, do not have a position of principal. The head of the institution is usually known as a

director: he or she is the entrepreneur. Institutions with more than one entrepreneur allocate positions according to contribution and qualification (president, chairperson, finance director, director of academic affairs). ”

Many of the private institutions are run by sole or family entrepreneurship. Although every institution has to be affiliated to the controlling agencies (NUB, BTEB), some are also registered with the Ministry of Commerce as private companies. Others are registered as ‘Shomobay–Shomity’ (co-operative society) under the ‘Shomobay Audidoctor’ (registration office for the co-operative society).

The politically elected GB members always have an influential role in the decision-making process in public and semi-government colleges (Alam, 2003). Self financing institutions must have a GB, usually selected from entrepreneurs, friends and relatives. The IKPV makes an important point:

“Our experience in employing governing body members from outside is bitter because, although the services of governing body members are voluntary, they want access to a huge amount of money and to some extent, they also want the proprietorship.”

Whatever the position (chairperson, president-head of governing body, principal, director), the entrepreneurs are the internal decision-maskers of private institutions (IPVHT, IPVHST). However, as the institution is not an autonomous body, the major decisions are taken by key people within the controlling agency (NUB, BTEB, Directorate of Health) (IKPH, IUGC, INUB, IBTEB).

Franchise provider

The Franchise provider is not officially recognised by the Government, therefore there are no official rules and regulations available to examine. However, IPVHT, IPVHST and IKPV testify that the entrepreneurs are the local decision-makers and policy-makers. They operate the business under an MOU signed between the local entrepreneur and the foreign principal.

In conclusion of this sub-section, I would say that, considering the nature of this research question, it is not important to analyse in detail the advantages and disadvantages created by the sole involvement of entrepreneurs in decision-making. Decision-making is the key for management to achieve success in education enterprises, guided by people who are skilled in the practice of management and decision-making (Alam, 2003, Handy, 1986, Bush, 1995, Fitzgibbons, 1981, Kreitner, 1999, Weaver, 1974). Recently, a participatory approach to decision-making has been advocated by scholars. This ensures a certain level of involvement by people working in different units/lines in the day-to-day decision making (Alam, 2003, Stephenson, 1996). However, the day-to-day decision-making, and selection of people to make the decisions, is inevitably biased by the principle decision-makers of the organisation.

I must argue that the entrepreneurs are the risk-takers and that circumstances lead them to be the decision-makers of their establishments (entrepreneurs are accountable for the survival of their establishments – they need to pay for employees and other expenditures, which means they must have the control necessary to make budgetary decisions – they are the decision-makers). Nevertheless, I noticed from interviews that key personnel, lecturers and support staff of private HE sector wish to contribute to decision-making. Many of the universities and institutions follow bureaucratic processes in decision-making, thus restricting its participatory nature. I therefore urge again that, to a greater or lesser degree, different levels of participation (consultation, delegation, peer participation) can produce radical recommendations that might be useful for the chief decision-makers (Alam, 2003). In addition, involving employees in decision-making should empower those same employees, and the implementation of the decisions taken should be so much smoother.

Challenges for governance and regulatory control

Discussions in previous sections explored the present setup of governance and regulatory control of private HE and focussed on the prevailing challenge. It is now obligatory that legislators should introduce suitable policies for governance and regulatory control, taking into consideration local norms and cultures enabling future challenges to be confronted. The existing setup is too weak to tackle current challenges; therefore what hope can there be for any new challenges that may arise?

The following discussion focuses on future challenges for governance and regulatory control of the private HE sector.

Identity Crisis

University graduates are highly ambitious; they are keen to pursue HE in order to gain a prestigious job after graduating. It is universally accepted that, in order to study for a higher degree (i.e. PhD, MPhil) or to gain a prestigious job, the graduate must have an academic referee. Under the prevailing conditions, some institutions of HE have to cease⁹⁵ operation, so how will the students of such institutions source any references that they may need in the future?

It has been found that, when a recommendation by UGC to close some private universities was published in a local newspaper, students searched for an institution that would survive for at least the next couple of years; the students themselves prefer universities run by people involved with current government politics (IPVHS, IGUDPVH). The Education Board or Council preserves the value and honour of a diploma awarded to their affiliates' students, and universities preserve and acknowledge diplomas issued to their graduates. But if a university ceases operation, what organisation will preserve and acknowledge the value and recognition of a diploma conferred on its graduates?

It is unlikely that any founder wants to halt the operation of their organisation – they will usually have invested considerable effort to ensure its survival. When circumstances do conspire and result in a halting of operations, the founder will fight tooth and nail in order to survive, and this must inevitably have a negative impact on HE that cannot be legislated against.

Reality

'Necessity knows no law'. The private HE sector is undergoing a period of change and occasionally reality forces existing rules and regulations to be ignored. According to the law as it currently stands, a university must move to its own campus after two years of operation. As yet, no universities have moved to their own campuses. To function smoothly, the faculties necessary are to be found in well-designed classrooms equipped with modern teaching aids – overhead projectors, video players,

⁹⁵ Since too many institutions of higher education are functioning.

multimedia projectors, computer terminals connected to the Local Area Network, comprehensive and automated libraries, computer and other laboratories, etc. It is not surprising that, so far, no university has been able to put all these facilities in place (OB). The acquisition and development of such a complex infrastructure takes time. It has been noted that a number of universities have still to acquire their own land for a campus, years after they commenced operation. They are to be found operating in the heart of cities and in the midst of deafening noise and crowded, polluting traffic. Land is scarce and expensive in the Dhaka metropolis and surrounding area. Purchasing suitable land within the city would consume a large part of a university's available resources. Moving to the outskirts of the city would mean that the university would lose some of their existing clientele, as students and faculty staff would find it difficult and time-consuming to commute to the campus on a daily basis. Many would be reluctant to even consider commuting. Establishing a fully residential university with the best facilities available would provide one solution, but would need massive investment. Without government endowment or financial support, it is not possible to acquire a suitable piece of land and build a significant campus infrastructure, and thus the relocation of a university to its own campus within the short period of time allowed is unfeasible.

The UGC provides guidelines or minimum requirements under which criteria candidates are appointed to different ranks: lecturer, assistant professor, associate professor, professor. The minimum qualifications for teachers at a private university, as defined by UGC, coincide with those of public universities. On entry, a candidate must have four first classes (and no third division) at any level. It has been shown that a brilliant graduate may be an entirely incompetent teacher, whilst a comparatively less bright student might prove be a challenging and stimulating teacher. It should be noted that those running private universities face especial problems in the recruitment of good teachers. Rightly or wrongly and with few exceptions, all private universities claim to follow the USA education system. Logically, they therefore prefer to recruit teachers who are familiar with the USA system. But this preference creates problems. The vice chancellor at a private university suggests that:

“In many private universities, the language of instruction is English. Experience confirms that there are many bright graduates with four first classes from Bangladeshi universities, but their English is weak as they did not receive English instruction. There are a good number of students studying within the private HE sector who have studied ‘O’ and ‘A’ levels with English instruction. In these circumstances, although qualified in the eyes of UGC, they may not perform well in the classrooms of private universities. Therefore, some private universities prefer candidates who have had the opportunity to attend classes in the USA or English-speaking countries.”

Discussing what co-institutions an adequately qualified teacher raises another issue. If a candidate has a third class at SSC or HSC examination, but first class both in BA and Masters and a PhD from a good university, he or she should not be disqualified from becoming a teacher at a private university. Performance of the latest examinations should be used for determining the candidate’s academic capability and eligibility for a teaching post, not what happened in the distant past.

It is quite possible that many private universities will find it difficult to recruit teachers with the minimum qualifications demanded by UGC. In addition, private universities inevitably face circumstances within their day-to-day management that forces them to ignore the unrealistic governance and regulatory setup.

Political crisis

It has been noted continually throughout the research of this project that Bangladeshi higher education is politically influenced; private HE is not an exception. The politically opposed group will always attempt to seek revenge if their party is returned to power. This may lead to new challenges as new politicians fail to follow rules and regulations. Moreover, they persistently take advantage of any weakness in existing law with the assistance of politically-biased academics.

Cultural prejudice and corruption

For-profit education is not accepted socially within Bangladeshi culture, and therefore legislators always try to show that policies made for governance and regulatory control cover not-for-profit entities. By denying the realities, legislators

introduce laws for the private HE sector as are primarily sustainable in a state-owned organisation. This forces the private sector to ignore the rules and regulations. In this regard, an entrepreneur points out:

“One interesting factor is that academics involved with public HE sector are the legislators, along with the politicians. It is a cultural norm that public HE academics want to be involved with the private sector and exercise their power and, as such, make rules and regulations which will allow them to take advantage.”

Many founders of private universities and institutions also claim that legislators have immoral principles, which is why the private university founder is ignored by the law. Entrepreneurs and key people are concerned about the existing corruption practised in the HE atmosphere.

“The exercising of a high level of corruption is customary in the education sector of Bangladesh. It has been noted that almost all universities and institutions of HE experience different forms of corruption therefore, ensuring good governance and regulatory control is an implicit official agenda.” (Director of a HLI)

Lack of Coordination

There are a few numbers of the controlling bodies (i.e. MOE, UGC, NUB, and Directorate of Health) appointed to control and monitor the private HE sector. Private universities are controlled by the UGC; the affiliates of NUB, Directorate of Health and BTEB are controlled by their respective authorities. Working under different controlling bodies puts regulation of the system under unnecessary pressure. To illustrate this point, the president of the Association of Entrepreneurs of HLI offers the following example:

“Many private universities established during the later phases collected students from NUB affiliates without following official procedures. Our association, and the authorities of self-financing affiliates of NUB, sought help from the NUB, but the NUB denied assistance. Their explanation was that, since the UGC is the supervising body of the NUB,

they were unable to take any action against a private university. The association and authorities of self-financing affiliates of NUB also sought help from the UGC, but were also denied help as the affiliates of NUB are not controlled by the UGC”.

There is no special Commission or Council of the private HE sector whereby an institution or specific type of institution, such as affiliates of NUB, can seek judgement in a crisis.

Franchise Provision

Franchise provision in private HE is a major concern in international HE. Although no outstanding foreign institutions of HE operate in Bangladesh, we will consider the history of another country. In Malaysia, franchise provision is an area in the development of that country's HE which has offered many positive points and few negative. None of us can foresee the future of Bangladeshi HE with any conviction. For the time being, Bangladesh might be well served by inviting one or two high-profile universities from developed countries to shape and point private HE in the right direction. Such a university will inevitably possess efficient management and administration processes and learning from these will provide a further challenge for governance and regulatory control in Bangladesh. As an example, the University of Nottingham in the UK has its own chancellor and vice chancellor, who are also responsible for a University of Nottingham establishment in Malaysia. However, if the University of Nottingham sought to operate in Bangladesh, it would need to put a different chancellor and vice chancellor in post on the Bangladesh campus in accordance with present Bangladeshi regulatory controls. This would not be acceptable.

Some foreign and local universities provide distance learning. In this context, London University's external programme is an example. An individual from any part of the world can join a distance learning programme. People with internet access may work towards higher diplomas (MBA, Masters, PhD) without participating in any formal form of schooling (see: evidence Appendix H). However, the quality assurance offered by a distance learning provider in HE is an area of grave concern, and the acceptability of any degree conferred via distance learning needs to be evaluated through an apposite process.

Strategy for governance and regulation

Official private education, and in particular HE provision, is a topical issue in Bangladesh. However, in-depth analysis shows that unsanctioned private education existed when education was not a concern for public policy. The introduction of private education in the Bengal region was implemented by a process known as 'Gru-Shiso'. An individual with a good analytical knowledge was considered as 'Gru' and followers were known as 'Shiso'. Exercising knowledge through Gru-Shiso became popular and motivated an official system of schooling. Later, by utilising public policy, formal education owned by the state was established. The gradual increasing of demand for education in these days again forced the nation to embrace private education whilst acknowledging that education is a fundamental concern for public policy.

Many organisers of the private HE sector believe that *Bazaar* is the platform that provides parameters for the governance and regulatory control of private HE, thus do not appreciate the strict rules and regulations imposed by the government to control and monitor them. On the other hand, legislators and politicians wish to retain full control of the private HE sector. Correspondence received from a private university founder indicates that:

"Although politicians and legislators want to reserve the regulatory power of the private HE sector, in the long run Bazaar of education will determine whether we are providing a quality and epoch-making education. The increasing number of students enrolling with the private sector demonstrates that we are doing right."

These days, the huge responsibility of public policy it is not acceptable for many reasons. Moreover, an increasing number of students does not essentially demonstrate that things are moving in the right direction; a business policy or some degree of misleading information may increase enrolment temporarily.

In the 21st century, public policy provides the parameter for effective and accountable management. At the end of the day, it is important that public policy is accountable to questions and criticisms raised by the public. Ignoring public policy as the parameter for governance and regulatory control is not a solution. Commonly,

education is perceived as the main tool for national development. However, I argue that substantial education, rather than education, is the weapon for national development, and therefore presenting a substantial private HE should be the prime obligation of public policy.

It has been found that, in the developed as well as the developing world, public policy always establishes a *principle and agent* approach for governance and regulatory control. In many countries, for instance, there is a Ministry of Education or University Grants Commission that works as the principal with the universities considered to be agents. In spite of criticism, this approach is still considered the best option. Scholars working in public policy are careful when laying out a suitable method to establish a good relationship between principal and agent, one that can ensure decent and transparent governance and regulatory control. Earlier, it has been noted that the principal is the leader and the agent follower. However, scholars are now becoming adherents of participatory methods. Whilst the participatory method works well in the developed world, the developing world is struggling to find a more appropriate method due to political and cultural crises (see: Alam, 2003).

I believe that, without a decent political situation and culture, no public policy can supply good governance and regulatory control. However, I argue that the principal-agent approach is more appropriate than that of *Bazaar*.

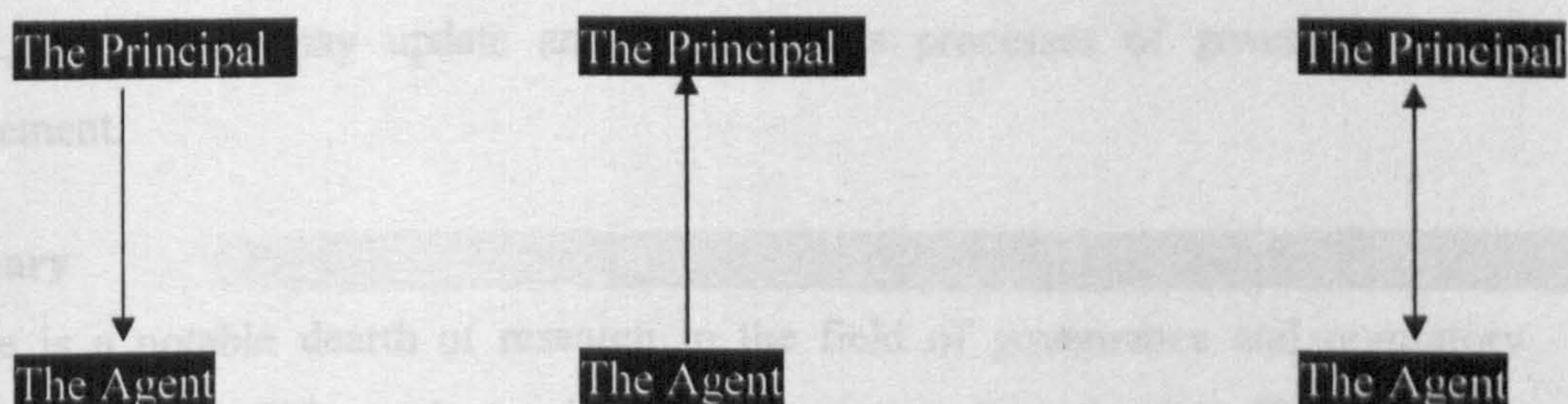


Figure 39

The UGC works as the universities' principal. Mechanisms set up by the UGC can evaluate performance indicators achieved by public universities for funding purposes. The chairman of UGC and other key personnel have a background based in public universities, and that background forms their cultural identity. Private universities find

themselves neglected by the UGC as a result. The UGC is playing a controversial role, rather than a constructive one, in the creation of substantial private HE.

Private universities, as well as private higher learning institutions, provide HE to the local community. There is a need for appropriate coordination between the two. It is not possible to establish a principal (UGC) and agent (private HE sector) method for governance and regulatory control under the current scope of the UGC management process.

It was important to establish the Private Higher Education Commission (PHEC) before introducing the private HE sector. The common cliché, 'prevention is better than cure' is often found to be true and it was felt important to establish a small number of private institutions of HE, under the umbrella of PHEC, to assist the public monopoly of HE in the re-education of society. Having some operational experience in the field of private higher education, the Commission may be able to set up a substantial private HE sector, according to requirements. It is now seeking the time necessary to establish the PHEC in order to ensure a substantial private HE sector. It is to be hoped that public policy addresses the existing demerits and problems of the sector. Discussions in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 have illuminated problems experienced in private HE. In addition, earlier sections of this chapter have illustrated weaknesses in the present governance and regulatory controls. Consideration of the issues outlined above and conducting minor but focussed research on each of the issues raised in this project, the PHEC may update and moderate its processes of government and management.

Summary

There is a notable dearth of research in the field of governance and regulatory control of private HE as shown in the literature review chapter. This research attempted to investigate this issue in the context of Bangladesh. The summary of discussion has included each section while addressing the research questions. The general conclusion is that formal arrangements for the governance and regulatory control for private HE provision in Bangladesh are not significant and up-to-date enough to help the sector function effectively. The available rules and regulations are suitable for public HE not for private HE. In addition, design and implementation of good policies are equally important. I also note that policy is an insecticide used to

kill all insects of education, preventing development. However, if the policy is virus affected or any insect kills the policy, there is little hope for an effective education sector. While legislators want to take the advantages of the policy, rules and regulations, the design and implementation of good policy is a nightmare. New governance and regulatory processes especially suited for private HE sector are urgently needed. Until a far-reaching and realistic governance and regulatory process takes place, the sector will follow the informal arrangements. However, I believe that informal arrangement is not a permanent solution and degrades the situation. Furthermore, if problems and difficulties arise due to the practise of informal arrangements in governance and regulatory processes, public policy will be criticised.

Chapter 9: Conclusion

Introduction

Chapters 5 to 8 included the issues that surround private HE in Bangladesh. A detailed analysis has been provided, along with suggestions to address prevailing and potential problems. This final chapter summarises earlier findings and offer further suggestions, implementation of which may assist the private HE sector in Bangladesh function to more effectively. This chapter also makes suggestions for further research. Finally, certain criteria need to be met in order for a PhD thesis to fulfil requirements. Note is made of how this is achieved.

The role of private HE in achieving national development

Public and private education must, by their very nature, differ; and differences in HE provision are many. Those who seek higher education expect to benefit in both their professional and personal lives, and the areas where they hope to gain also differ greatly. HE provision reflects this. Research repeatedly finds that primary and secondary education contributes to a higher rate of return for the nation, whereas higher education provides greater benefits for the individual. I argue, however, that the benefit received by the individual still carries significant weight in the calculation of GDP.

In addition, the massive expansion of primary and secondary education in recent years has provided indicators showing that the rate of return from these two areas of education has increased. The rate of return for primary education was higher between the early 1950s and late 1970s; it is now higher for secondary education (in some cases VET education). The change has arisen because, in the earlier years, the number of pupils in receipt of a primary education was small, and even less at secondary level, leaving researchers with little scope to scrutinise the rate of return at secondary level. There were no opportunities at all for higher education. I argue, therefore, that as the levels of population continuing with HE increase, the rate of return for HE will become correspondingly greater. I am not, however, suggesting that the HE rate of return will increase merely because numbers increase. To have a higher rate of return of HE for the nation as a whole, it is important to find out what forms of HE are

necessary and relevant. Attention must be paid to the prudent selection of students for specific courses who should, in return, expect to receive a quality education.

There is no doubt that private education has a significant role to play in Bangladesh, both in higher education and in national development. However, it is not enough. Private HE needs to be proactive in performing its role towards the country's development. In order to establish a substantive and effective private HE sector, legislators and policy makers should ensure:

1. A careful and considered expansion procedure
2. An effectively functioning procedure to ensure realistic and regularised practices
3. Diligent governance and regulatory control to ensure that advantage is gained, and to address the problems of disadvantage

This research has investigated four main areas relating to private HE in Bangladesh: the expansion phenomenon; current practice; advantages and disadvantages; governance and regulatory control. Chapters 5 to 8 have sequentially and coherently addressed research questions investigating these factors.

Key findings, observations and suggestions

The following discussion offers key findings, observations, suggestions and conclusions under three headings:

1. Expansion procedure
2. Functioning procedure
3. Governance and regulatory control

However, before continuing, cautionary remarks concerning the developing world need to be considered.

In the Third World, any research carried out invariably results in a long list of recommendations. Policy-makers consistently fail to follow any of the suggestions made or, at best, partially implement them. A comprehensive solution continues to be elusive whilst the prevailing culture of corruption and political influence prevents the effective implementation of policies. Suggestions emerging as a result of this thesis follow, however, I wish to emphasise that their straightforward and direct

implementation may not fully address all of the existing problems. However, I firmly advocate that, if a transparent and open policy structure could be achieved and political interference minimised, the suggestions could go a long way towards solving at least some of the problems facing the private HE sector in Bangladesh.

The private sector cannot operate in isolation from HE generally. The suggestions will not only identify actions that need to be taken by the private sector, but will highlight potential areas for improvement across the entire state education system, focusing on HE.

Expansion Procedures

The exceptional expansion of private HE in Bangladesh was analysed in Chapter 5. Research objectives were met by in-depth analysis of the research findings. Key findings from Chapter 5 are presented below, followed by suggestions for a cohesive expansion procedure.

In earlier years, a public monopoly of HE existed in Bangladesh. However, in some cases, inefficient public management procedures failed to ensure that an adequate tertiary education existed. It was also found that the increasing demand for HE resulted in enrolment in some public institutions being overwhelmed which further degraded efficacy. A requirement for an alternative form of HE became apparent, and the private HE sector was created. It is important to note that the entrepreneurs of private HE institutions see the main focus of their operations as business rather than a social necessity. In addition, incompetence, coupled with a lack of vision and motivation by entrepreneurs, politicians and legislators, has resulted in Bangladesh private HE emerging as weak, being quantitative rather than qualitative. For private HE to become effective, an appropriate expansion procedure needs to be identified. The following discussion focuses on suggestions gained from the summary of findings. Their implementation could assist in the workable expansion of private HE, particularly in addressing to the constraints highlighted by the research discussed in Chapter 5.

The discussion aims to provide the following outcome:

- Suggestions for entrepreneurs, politicians, legislators and policy makers in establishing a substantive private HE sector;**
- In the instigation of a substantive HE sector, it is important that weaknesses within public management are identified. Research shows that public institutions are inefficient in their use of resources: a first step towards a competent private entity could be via the privatisation of selected management positions in public institutions. For example, many public institutions fail to provide effective support services (i.e. catering, information services, accommodation, career advice). Privatisation or private management within these areas would reduce the overall burden on public institutions and enable them to concentrate on academic affairs. This would provide an opportunity for the private sector to gain experience of working within the education sector, and familiarise themselves with the education service – the role of education and its civic responsibilities. Having gained experience, the private sector should then find it easier to run an education enterprise independently.**
- Plans for the expansion of education necessarily differ from those of other business organisations. In business sectors such as food retail, transport, or insurance, expansion can take place much as the entrepreneurs wish, as market demand ultimately determines their existence – if a large number of similar businesses are established, they must compete against one another in order to survive. Competition among businesses is not always negative. However, I argue that the expansion of sensitive service sectors, such as education and medicine, should be handled with more thought and prudence. Incompetent entrepreneurs and their misguided criteria for competition, degrade the standard of service. The penalty of a weak medical service would be inadequate health care; the penalty of a weak education programme could be equally dangerous, halting national development – or even putting it into reverse. I argue that, to establish an adequate private HE sector, it is important that the real long-term demands of private HE are calculated, with particular attention being paid to having the correct number of institutions covering all relevant fields as required. The institutions should be established under the guidance of proper, decent and transparent government and legislation overseen by experienced, professional bodies. Over-zealous**

competition should not form the parameters for the existence of private HE. Decent governance procedures are critical to the process.

- **The over-rapid expansion of academic programmes should be deterred. Before diversifying, existing degree programmes should be strengthened and consolidated. When considering the opening or expansion of departments, private universities and institutions should give priority to disciplines relevant to the needs of emerging societies in Bangladesh. At the same time, they should respond to demands for the means of producing proficient teachers and other professionals. For example, when planning to introduce completely new courses to the Bangladeshi education system (for instance: Mining Technology, E-commerce, Technology), an institution should install the necessary trained and competent academics before offering the courses to the local community. There is a shortage of skilled academics in these fields.**

Once a sector has been established, appropriate and effective working procedures must be put into place to gain effective results. This may be achieved in private HE by the following:

Functioning Procedures

The current practices, and advantages and disadvantages of private HE, were analysed in Chapters 6 and 7 respectively.

Chapter 6 fulfilled research objectives by providing detailed analysis of findings with regard to: (1) the student population targeted by private HE; (2) courses and curricula; and (3) teachers within the private HE sector. Chapter 7 focused on the advantages and disadvantages of the private HE sector.

The following suggestions have been reached by summarising the findings discussed in Chapters 6 and 7. Their implementation can help private HE function more effectively by addressing the constraints found. The discussion leads to:

- **guidelines for helping students understanding their role in shaping their educational goal;**

- suggestions for lecturers, parents, political leaders, entrepreneurs and legislators for building an appropriate and adequate educational atmosphere in private HE institutions.

There are two sections. The first discusses how private institutions of HE can attract **competent** students. The second explores how private HE can achieve high academic **standards**.

Competent Input

It is universally understood that the quality of output depends on the quality of the **input**. With this in mind, private HE must find itself an academically competent **student** population, one that is sufficiently qualified to pursue any particular **programme** of study. Capable students are the bedrock of high academic standards. **Before** offering suggestions which may help attract the requisite competent input, I **offer** key findings regarding the student population as targeted by private HE sector. **Students** pursue primary and secondary education in order to gain access to higher **education**, and higher education is then pursued for 'Diploma Disease' in order to **obtain** a reasonable job. Gaining entry to public HE is the first priority for students, **as** public HE charges no tuition fees. Dependents of the elite will consider private HE **only** if rejected by public HE. In addition, the degrees awarded by a public university **are** more readily recognised and accepted. However, since students suffer 'Diploma Disease' with the diploma helping them get a good job and lead a prestigious life, those dependents of the privileged groups without the necessary qualifications to **study** higher education, will study in private HE institutions. These institutions **consider** financial gain as their main criteria when selecting students. As a result, a **significant** proportion of students at private institutions do not have the prerequisite **qualifications** to study their chosen courses. The following suggestions are made with **the** intention that their implementation may help attract competent students:

- A State Admission Council for the guidance of undergraduates should be established in order to maintain standards. This council should consider the introduction of compulsory prerequisite qualifications for all programmes and courses of study. The council should invite applications from candidates where the candidate can detail a preferred programme of study and choice of university. The State Admission Council should then conduct a centrally-based admission test, with the

allocation of the university and programme decided by the council and based solely **on the student's** test performance. Should a student be selected for diploma-level **study**, they should be obliged to study at this level; a university should not offer them **a Bachelor-level** programme. However, the student could be given leave to pursue **further HE** should satisfactory progress be made at the diploma level.

- **Legislation is required to govern issues created by overseas study. Bangladesh would benefit from the introduction of legislation that requires students wishing to study overseas, particularly in the neighbouring countries of India, Pakistan, Malaysia, to seek permission from the Ministry of Education. This should particularly apply at undergraduate level. Post-graduate and doctoral provision are not included as these programmes are not available in the local private institutions of higher education. Those wishing to study, or undertake further study, in neighbouring countries must have a satisfactory reason for wanting to do so, and only be given permission if the chosen programme is not available locally. However, in order to fulfil this requirement, the state needs to have high quality and diverse private education provision in place, otherwise any regulations formally introduced will simply be ignored.**
- **It is important for public HE institutions to compile a fee structure that caters for differing social classes (poor, middle class, upper-middle class, rich and elite). In Bangladeshi public HE, the same tuition fee (less than 15 TK in a month) is currently paid by the dependent of a poor farmer or of an elite industrialist. A variable fee structure will not only reduce the public subsidy for public HE institutions, but will also motivate the academically-gifted dependent of the elite classes to study in private HE. The private HE sector, in attracting capable students from a financially-sound background, will leave the public universities to accommodate more students from an economically poor background. It remains important for public HE institutions to continue to protect the rights of the economically-poor student – historically, the poorer students are always neglected.**

In conclusion, I argue that implementation of the above recommendations will help the private HE sector achieve high quality input, with the right students selected for the right courses. Once the sector has a high quality input in place, it follows that

output will improve – assuming that a high quality education with high academic **standards** has been provided.

The following section will focus on how private HE can meet high academic **standards**:

High academic standard

If any nation desires sustainable development and a higher rate of return from tertiary **education**, especially from private provision, it must get the choice of courses and **curriculum** exactly right. It must select the right students and teachers, and strive to **achieve** a high quality academic atmosphere. The following suggestions offer a means **for private HE institutions** to achieve high academic standards within three key areas:

1. Course and curriculum
2. Academic staff
3. Campus life

Course and curricula

A **credible** and well-positioned course with up-to-date and relevant content is a **pre-condition** of high academic standards. However, before offering suggestions on how **private HE** can ensure good courses and curricula, the key findings resulting from **research** for this study need to be considered. Chapter 6 revealed that private institutions of higher education predominantly offer undergraduate courses in **computing** and business studies, with MBA courses offered as part of postgraduate provision. Research degrees are not available.

Many of the private universities follow a North American-based curriculum. However, in preparing their curricula, the Bangladesh institutions do not seek guidance from either the American universities or from American academics – the overseas university's web pages are the main source of information. On the other hand, the curricula followed by the HLI and diploma institutions are too backdated to meet present demand. The curriculum therefore ignores the needs of the local Bangladeshi employment market. The main concern resulting from the use of American-based curricula is that incompetent students at private HE institutions in Bangladesh are incapable of completing the more difficult coursework involved. They therefore demand lower-grade examinations and assessments in order to qualify.

As the private universities depend on the tuition fees paid by their ‘customers’, they always allow themselves to be persuaded to lower the pass level of examinations and assessments in order to sustain their market.

The following suggestions may help private institutions raise academic standards by ensuring that the right courses and curricula lead to a realistic examination and assessment system.

- **Although it is obvious that private HE is market-driven, students and their guardians may have a misinformed idea of the developed world that influences their judgement of private HE. Those working to promote private HE should take action to ensure that the students and their guardians are aware of the prevailing necessity for education in Bangladesh. The private HE sector should offer a range of courses and programmes that will provide the skills the nation needs. The message that investment needs to be made for the receipt of knowledge, rather than the receipt of a certificate, must be conveyed to students and guardians alike. The receipt of knowledge is important not only for the personal and professional development of the student, but also for national development.**
- **Research plays a vital role in the development of HE, but within the scope currently available in Bangladeshi private HE, conducting research is difficult. There is no provision to study for a research degree. The private HE sector needs to budget for research centre development. Development in research can improve and enhance the atmosphere of academic excellence.**
- **The implementation of a high quality research programme is to be recommended, along with faculties for quality publications that will attract good faculties and students.**
- **As proposed in Chapter 8, a Private Higher Education Commission (PHEC) should be established to provide a results-based rating system for the private universities, based on their results. Teaching and research performance may be evaluated following an international system (i.e. REA-UK, Australian Accreditation Council).**
- **The proposed Commission (PHEC) should create specialist teams to design, develop and update course curricula for each of the programmes. The teams should be prepared to coordinate the design and moderation of the courses and curricula. Each private institution should be asked to prepare their courses and**

submit them for inspection by the PHEC, who will maintain quality assurance by approving acceptable course content for each and every institution. If amendment to a set course becomes necessary, approval should be sought from the PHEC before implementation.

- A major concern acknowledged within Bangladeshi private education is the 'American' influence. America is a first world country, thousands of miles away from Bangladesh. Its social norms and cultural, political and legal situations are very different from those of Bangladesh, and simply copying 'the American ideal' will not ensure a solid foundation for Bangladeshi private HE. Bangladesh must conduct its own research and create a model for private education, undertaking surveys and analysing statistical and historical data. There are certainly lessons that Bangladeshi private HE can learn from the USA, but I argue that additional detailed research relating directly to Bangladesh should be carried out.
- The private HE sector must adopt internationally recognised procedures for teacher and student evaluation. Teachers at private universities currently evaluate the performance of their students in accordance with cultural norms. However, it is accepted that what happens culturally in Bangladesh must change. Currently, a teacher might favour a particular student, or a student might have poor relationship with a teacher, and such influences can affect examination grades. In addition, students paying higher tuition fees expect to receive a higher grade. The introduction of external and impartial evaluation is important in order to bring about a good academic atmosphere.
- A form of central networking software should be utilised for the creation of a register where the personal details and academic data for all students currently in private HE may be stored. A unique student ID registration number will be necessary to allow the proposed PHEC access data relating to registered students. The benefits of a centralised system include halting the production of backdated graduation certificates facilitated by the creation of backdated registration numbers. In addition, should for any reason a private higher education institution cease to operate, students will not face *identity crisis*, the PHEC being in a position to acknowledge and confirm student details. Importantly, the register will also protect against illegal credit transfer: the PHEC will monitor and control the credit transfer system and thus deny students opportunity for illegal credit

transfers. No HE institution will be in a position to sanction any form of illegitimate or unethical facility. The PHEC will be able to review the progress and academic quality of students registered. Any breach of legal requirements or corruption may be easily recognised and monitored. The central database will provide much of the necessary information for research into private HE in Bangladesh. Creation of the database should be made a high priority so that the unethical and immoral practices currently employed within the private sector can be eliminated.

Academics

Before offering suggestions as to how private HE might increase the number of competent academic staff, key findings need to be presented. Chapter 6 revealed that private HE institutions largely depend on being able to hire academics from the public institutions. The private HE institutions have few full-time academics, and those they do have are invariably inadequately qualified. Even so, the private HE sector fails to involve itself with academic and staff development. The full-time academics are poorly paid and struggle under heavy workloads, constantly under threat of dismissal. The following suggestions are provided with the objective that their implementation will help private HE institutions gain sufficient and reasonably qualified full-time academics. Higher academic standards will follow as a matter of course.

- **Due consideration should be given to faculty selection. More full time teachers are required, and the dependence on teachers from public HE institutions needs to be reduced, along with the focus placed on such teachers for advertising purposes. In order to introduce more high quality full-time teachers, scholars and academics should be attracted into private HE with good salaries and job security with reliable service regulations, including retirement benefits, etc. Only qualified teachers should be hired, and only those with high ethical values who will command the respect and gain the confidence of students. A critical mass of good teachers will attract other good teachers. Teachers and staff should be appointed through formal selection procedures rather than personal recommendation.**
- **A faculty development programme should be carried out. For this a long-term strategy, one that includes the opportunity of paid study leave for the completion of a PhD, should be considered. All private universities need to explore every source of funding, and should maintain a dialogue with the Government so that an**

annual budget for special scholarships is earmarked. The faculties should be encouraged to compete for the Fulbright and other similar scholarships (i.e. Commonwealth, DFID, IMF, British Council, JICA, AUSID, World Bank).

- The current process of student evaluation of a teacher's performance does have its benefits. However, while students are conscious of the fact that their judgement is important with regard to their teacher's career, they add irrelevant and unnecessary demands. An environment has emerged whereby complaints made by the student are given serious consideration and without being properly judged within the parameters of the teacher's own career objectives. It has been found that teachers and support staff can be dismissed following a complaint from a student with an influential family. It is important that a fair, democratic, and dynamic student/teacher evaluation procedure is put into place.

Campus life

Before offering suggestions that may reduce the restrictions suffered by students in regard to campus life, key findings in this area need to be highlighted. The findings discussed in Chapter 7 illuminated two areas of concern:

- A good library is considered a warehouse of knowledge and is essential for the promotion of high academic standards. However, Chapter 7 showed that private HE institutions fail to provide good libraries. In addition, a good campus needs a well-run infrastructure and adequate facilities to be in place for extra-curricular activities – sports, societies and clubs, for instance. It is accepted that these form an important part of campus life, stimulating both the physical and mental growth of students. However, many of the HE institutions operate from rented rooms in multi-storey buildings, so any possibility of a campus life is completely missing. The following suggestions includes two issues:

- How good library facilities can be provided
- How a stimulating campus life can be created

Library facilities

- Virtually all international study and research material is now published electronically. A technologically up-to-date library, allowing access to electronic media, needs to be established centrally under the remit of the proposed PHEC. Backed by government funding, every private HE institution should be required to

pay a regular contribution towards the establishment and upkeep of the said electronic library. Both students and teaching staff should be given access to the library via secure user names and passwords.

- **Private universities should seek to collaborate with public universities for research and book lending agreements. This will improve the image of private universities.**

Stimulating campus life

- **Careful attention should be paid to the selection of an appropriate site for a campus, with sufficient land and buildings for the accommodation of classrooms, academic and co-curricular activities, libraries, seminar halls, auditoriums and laboratories, staff and students' common rooms, dining hall, etc. In order to implement this strategy, the government of Bangladesh or donor agencies should offer assistance, in the form of finance or land, to provide financial relief from the high cost of running private HE institutions. Without government assistance, the universities will be unable to acquire land of sufficient acreage to meet all requirements.**
- **A campus should be developed as soon as possible after its establishment. The provision of a cohesive infrastructure and adequate logistical support creates an environment conducive to teaching and learning endeavour. Laboratories and libraries should be adequately equipped with up-to-date equipment and a sufficient number of quality textbooks.**
- **HE calls for an enriched campus life where students can flourish, gain knowledge and practice freedom of thought. Private institutions of HE must be prepared to provide a modern and open campus life for their students.**
- **At the same time as providing students with an education, the private HE sector must pay attention to the development of their physical and mental attributes. Sport, debates and cultural activities should be included as part of the curricula. This will assist with development of the students as balanced members of society and instil co-operative traits in their character – as well as providing a worthy means by which the students can be distracted from undesirable pursuits (i.e. student politics, *Mustani*, *Chadabsi*).**

- **Students living outside the cities find it difficult to study at universities where accommodation facilities are inadequate. The private HE sector would attract more students and from a wider area if accommodation was made available.**
- **Learning from a practice common in developed countries, private institutions could consider the introduction of work-study programmes in order to allay some of the financial stress that occurs for both students and the administration. The students would gain confidence and respect for the dignity of their labour, and students from an economically impoverished background could be helped continue with further education.**

In conclusion, I want to emphasise the fact that, due to the existing management structure, the state, and institutional cultural and other barriers, implementation of the above suggestions will not be easy. However, the honest and courageous intentions of legislators, academics, entrepreneurs, guardians and students could begin to pave the way.

In the following section, suggestions will be presented that, in my opinion, need to be pursued in order to address the problems that are preventing Bangladesh's HE institutions, especially in private provision, from functioning effectively:

Governance and regulatory control

Chapter 8 discussed issues of governance and regulatory control. The objectives of this section of the research are achieved, as Chapter 8 addressed the research questions outlined. In order to address the difficulties experiencing with private HE sector with regards to governance and regulatory control, it was suggested to establish PHEC at chapter 8. The rationale for establishing PHEC has been explained at page 257 (chapter 8). This section explores the ways in which the PHEC may well address key problems experienced within the sector and the important role it could play in the future. The following suggestions may also assist private HE encompass satisfactory governance and regulatory controls by addressing constraints outlined in Chapter 8 after reviewing answers to the research questions.

Firstly, in chapter 8, it was noted that there is no independent governing body (principal) to control and monitor the issue of governance and regulatory control for private HE institutions in Bangladesh. This task has been left to the UGC which

controls, monitors and evaluates the governance and regulatory structures of private HE institutions in Bangladesh. A key problem is that the UGC is also mainly responsible for funding issues concerning public universities and that within the UGC body there is no separate department in charge of overseeing the activities of the HE private institutions.

A further problem is that the mechanisms and tools set up by the UGC for the governance and regulatory control are more appropriate for public universities than for private universities especially given that the latter are self-financing organizations. Concern about the role of the UGC relates to two issues, namely that it is difficult to generate a credible educational and research environment in a sector where the context, needs and funding structure are so significantly different, and even more so, it is impossible to regulate and govern the sector if the same criteria is used as used in the public university sector.

It is proposed that unlike the UGC the proposed PHEC will be an independent body that will exclusively control, monitor and evaluate the governance and regulatory structure of the private HE institutions. This will ensure that the mechanisms and tools used to govern and regulate issues in the private HE sector will be as appropriate for these institutions as those of the UGC is to the public funded universities.

It is further suggested that local entrepreneurs attached to private HE institutions be represented on the new regulatory and governance structures of the PHEC and that they be allowed to play a far bigger role in the sector than previously.

This will not only get them to better understand the key issues in the sector but it will also oblige them to pursue and fulfil best practice in their duties on governance and regulatory control structures.

The second problem within the sector is that different regulatory bodies oversee different parts of the sector. It was found for instance that while some types of private HE institutions are regulated and governed by the UGC other private Higher Learning Institutions are governed and regulated by the NUB. Notably, there are currently 5 different types of private HE institutions in Bangladesh and they are variously governed and controlled by at least seven different agencies (see Chapter 8). This inevitably leads to high levels of bureaucracy, huge difficulties in finding some uniform approaches to issues within the sector, and little or no co-ordination amongst

institutions. In chapter 7, it was noted for instance that some private universities often **offer** ‘illegal credit transfer facilities’ for students studying with the private higher **learning** institutions which has led to many such institutions losing their students. But **in** trying to address the problem, it was found that neither the NUB or the UGC could **intervene** as they had not resolved fundamental issues between themselves and who **had** the greater jurisdiction. It is argued that the establishment of a PHEC will ensure **that** all types of private institutions of HE in Bangladesh would fall under the **guidance** of one controlling body that is specifically trained and geared to the control, **monitoring** and regulatory practices of the private HE sector.

By creating a specialist body to look after the private HE sector this will not only **assist** the sector to ‘get its act together’ but also perhaps generate a new way of **addressing** governance issues, that may serve as a useful challenge to the way in **which** the UGC currently operates. In the long run it is hoped that the two competing **bodies** will generate a sense of integrity, sincerity and interest within the higher **education** sector in Bangladesh which would be beneficial to both private and public **institutions.**

Importantly, to ensure best practice and to be successful the PHEC will need to **oversee** the following tasks:

- The PHEC will need to develop legislative ways of dealing with quite different types of HE providers (i.e. university, HLI, institution of diploma education, franchise operator); ways that are workable and pragmatic and deal with issues of expansion, management, administration, rules and regulations within the private HE sector.
- It will also need to lobby for a greater role in the development of statutes that affect the sector, and ensure that it is fully consulted when such legislation is being discussed. If the body is to be effective the PHEC will need to detail the essential issues that need addressing before the preparation of statutes and ensure that its various institutional members are fully aware and participant in the development thereof. The PHEC, alongside them setting up structures that allow institutions to participate more fully, will further have to ensure that all participating institutions rigorously follow all the rules and regulations,

directions and guidance prescribed by the various statutes, acts and amendments.

Further research

In suggesting the desperate need for a body like the PHEC it is important to note that this is but one requirement that can help the growth and development of the private HE sector in Bangladesh. There is also an urgent need for further research into various aspects of governance and regulatory control within the sector. It is suggested that such **research** focus on the following areas:

- Firstly, the sector requires some understanding of the issue of quality in education and how this is related to the governance and regulatory control of private HE in Bangladesh. It is suggested that a Private Higher Education Commission be established to oversee and understand the responsible accountabilities of the different agencies ('Flemish Agency'), and the role of for instance politicians in this process. The work of this body and the research it generates would greatly assist the PHEC to set up and develop the necessary mechanisms and tools to properly regulate and govern private HE institutions.
- Secondly, there is a need for a better understanding of current links between input and output within the private and public HE sectors. While the performance of universities is normally evaluated according to outputs produced it is notable that this is directly dependent on the kinds of input that these institutions get (i.e the quality of students enrolled). There is a need to understand what kinds of students are enrolling at the various kinds of HE institutions if they are to be effectively compared and evaluated.

Lastly, more research is needed into the job performance of the graduates from private and public HE institutions. In the past academic results were used as an indicator of quality assurance and the different levels of quality within the various sectors and institutions. Thus, when more students gained the SSC with good grades and within specified timescales this was seen to indicate that the quality of education had improved and was certified as such. However, this approach is no longer relevant or acceptable given that students are exiting the HE system from a wide variety of points. It is suggested that quality assurance within the HE system could best be understood through the evaluation of graduate performance in the workplace and that

research into this area would greatly assist policy makers and institutional leaders to develop better quality assurance mechanisms within the HE sector in Bangladesh.

Conclusion

A PhD thesis needs to demonstrate the following criteria:

- Work of substance
- Original investigations
- Contribution to knowledge
- Written to a publishable standard

I believe that this thesis has met the four criteria because:

1. It has investigated an issue of current and major concern for the devolvment of HE, not only in Bangladesh but also across the Third World in general. No previous research has been carried out in this field, particularly in Bangladesh.
2. Data used in this thesis are from primary sources. Methods of data collection were scientific and strictly controlled.
3. The thesis has not only presented an insight into the problems of Bangladeshi private HE, it has also provided significant and constructive recommendations to address the problems.
4. The thesis has been written with due care and consideration to a publishable standard, with continual assessment to ensure that each of the above three criteria are met. Experienced proofreading followed.

Three conference papers have been produced and presented during preparation of this dissertation. The international university, Grandview, MO, USA, also considered a further paper as a working paper. In addition, one paper is considered by reviewers of "Quality Assurance in Education. All five papers are the part products of this PhD thesis. The titles are as follows.

Gazi M. Alam (forthcoming) Quality Assurance at the affiliated institutions of higher education of the National University of Bangladesh, *Quality Assurance in Education*

Gazi M. Alam (2006) *Governance and Regulatory Challenges for private HE sector in Bangladesh*. Working paper, The International University, MO, USA

Gazi M. Alam (2006) *Why public policy fails to establish a substantial private higher education system in Bangladesh.* Paper presented in A RESEARCH COLLOQUIUM: *Education and Development in the Commonwealth: Comparative Perspectives* University of Nottingham, 16th & 17th March, 2006.

Gazi M. Alam (2005) *Can public policy ensure a substantial private higher education.* Conference paper, presented at the School of Public Policy and Law, University of Nottingham, 5th - 7th September, 2005.

Gazi M. Alam (2004) *The rapid expansion of private higher education in Bangladesh: An investigation of the impact of educational governance and legislation* (in eds. *Adedeji S.O. and Morgan, W.J*) *Education and Development in the Commonwealth: Comparative Perspectives*, The Commonwealth Scholarship Commission, London.

In conclusion of this thesis, it is my wish for legislators to consider some of the suggestions put forward to assist the private HE sector function effectively. I believe that legislators are the central solution to the problems experienced within the sector. They need to take radical decisions and initiate the design of well-timed and workable policies. They should monitor the best practice of any policy designed. Beforehand, legislators should initiate and conduct extensive research in identifiable areas, focusing on specific issues. This will help with their design of good policy.

At the conclusion of these endeavours, I find myself having to leave out a lot of the data. However, the '*Data Warehouse Software*', in which data collected from the questionnaire is stored, will help future researchers investigate the findings of this thesis for their own part, or conduct further research into other specialist areas (see attached CD).

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Appendices

Appendix: A

I will now present some examples to establish that economical development and social development/human development are interrelated. Every occasion demonstrates that under-developed countries are invariably unable to offer sufficient salaries to their employees to meet fundamental needs, because of the poverty of the countries. And the circumstances lead the employees to become corrupt i.e. by taking bribes or by stealing goods. Once corrupt, their activities must inevitably hinder national economical development by reducing the quality of the work. It is also a universal belief that education can play a most significant role in national development. Here again, the reality is that, to establish an appropriate national educational atmosphere, a country needs sufficient economic strength. In addition, it is commonplace to see that the unemployed are becoming frustrated and taking drugs. Therefore, to find the money for buying drugs, they are identified as theft, robbery, and hijacker. It can be added that accompanying them, 'general' people became vagabonds.

Appendix: B

Fourteen research questions have been considered for my proposed doctoral research in private higher education and, to answer the research questions outlined (see more: Chapter 1), a research method has already been considered. This is a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches (see more: Chapter 4). Answers to every individual research question demand '*individualism and differentiated sources*' for the collection of data (Bell 1999). The following will examine which methods/sources of data collection is considered to be the most appropriate when answering each individual research question.

Research question: Why is the private HE sector growing so rapidly?

The accounts of literature review (Developing World perspective) show that various reasons are emerging in the expansion of private higher education. But every account identifies that '*raising students enrolment rate at tertiary level*' is the fundamental issue in expansion of private higher education (see more: section 2.2.4). Moreover, some other factors (such as policy change, differentiated demands, globalisation,

artificial demand of higher education – see more: Amaral and Teixeira, 2000) along with other fundamental factors, also influence the expansion of private higher education. Considering the above circumstances, the following sources of data collection will be important indicators when answering Research Question 1:

- Number of HSC (higher secondary certificate) passed students from 1988 to 2004. (of every faculty such as Science, Commerce, Arts)
- Student enrolment capacity of the government universities/institutions from 1988 to 2004 (in relation to each subject, if possible)
- Number of private universities/institutions established from 1992 to 2004.
- Student enrolment capacity of private universities/ institutions and the number of students from 1922 to 2004 (in relation to each subject)
- Number of students enrolled into BA, B.Com, B.Sc. (pass course) studies from 1988 to 2004.

Apart from the sources indicated, interviews (qualitative approach) will be conducted with key persons at the University Grant Commission (UGC), Ministry of Education, National University of Bangladesh (NUB), entrepreneurs of private universities /institutions and intellectuals. Questioners for randomly selected students, lecturers and students' guardians are seen as less important sources for answering the research question indicated. However, such sources will also be used.

Research question: Who is involved in the management of private HE institutions/universities?

To answer the above question, analysis of documents will be the prime concern. The following documents need to be collected:

- Portfolio of the private universities/institutions
- Private University Acts of Bangladesh (1992, 1998, 2002, 2004)
- Statutes of different private universities/institutions
- Organisational structure of private universities/institutions.
- National University Acts
- NUB rules and regulations for affiliation of private institutions

To examine the data gained from the above-mentioned sources or to justify the reality, interviews will be conducted (qualitative approach) with personnel (management/support staff) of private universities/institutions and their students.

Question: What are the motives for establishing private higher education institutions?

Qualitative approach interviews are considered the best method of data collection. The following people will be principally interviewed to collect the data.

- Key people of the private universities/institutions
- Interviews with social elites who are known as reputed educators.
- Interviews with management/support staff and academic staff.

Question: what kinds of educational programmes are offered by the private universities/institutions?

This will be simply answered by collecting data of the courses offered by private universities/institutions from their prospectus and publicity material (i.e. brochure, internet). In order to examine it, qualitative approach interviews will be conducted with the students and lecturers of the private universities.

Question: Why are these kinds of programmes offered?

This will be analysed from the answers of the previous responses by critical reviewing of the researcher's own experience gathered for the hypothesis. Qualitative interviews will be conducted with government universities and private university professors. In addition, questionnaires will be given to randomly selected students (quantitative) of government universities, and to students at private universities.

Question: How are the course and curricula designed?

This will be answered by interviewing the people who are responsible for designing the course and curricula in private universities. In addition, course and curricula of the institutions are designed by the National University of Bangladesh, BETB, and Directorate of Health; therefore the people of NUB, NUB, and DH who are responsible for course design will be interviewed. To cross-examine their answers, interviews will be conducted with key people at the institutions.

Question 6: What is the quality of the course and curricula?

The answers of previous question will lead the research in analyse of this question. Lectures and observation of other facilities will also play an important role in answering this question.

Question 7: What is the target student population for private HE sector educational programmes?

The accounts of the literature review show that private university is the second choice for the students in the developing world. When students are not gaining admission to government universities, or to their desired subjects in a government university, those who can afford it consider study at a private university. Students in Third World countries from privileged backgrounds but academically poor⁹⁶ also study at private universities. Mindful of this, questionnaires will be given to randomly selected students (quantitative) of private and government universities. Location of the private universities/institutions will be observed carefully and gender issues will be considered. The age of the students will also be considered as students taking an educational year gap cannot enrol at a government university. The tuition structure of private institutions needs to be observed. Questionnaires will be provided to HSC passed students who are facing an admission test for government and non-government institutions/universities.

Question: Who are the teachers at the private university?

Literature on private higher education in the developing world shows that private universities suffer from a lack of competent teachers. In addition, professors and lecturers from government universities teach in private universities. Bearing this in mind, questionnaires will be given to the private universities students and lecturers. Some teachers who are involved in teaching at both types of universities will be interviewed.

Question: What are the advantages of the rapid growth of the private higher education sector in Bangladesh?

Answers to the foregoing questions will lead the research to analyse this question. It is one of the prime research questions; therefore all approaches used will be utilised to achieve the findings of this question. Attempts will be made to collect data from the USA, UK, Australian and Indian High Commission (agencies: i.e. British council, USIS) to learn the comparative ratio of students studying abroad during the periods before the creation of the private HE sector and after.

⁹⁶ It is claimed that private education (especially primary level and secondary level) is an elite demand as they want to ensure high quality education for their children to help them be admitted to higher education. Government higher education remains better quality as a competitive admission test exists that gives limited access to the system.

Question: What are the disadvantages of the rapid growth of the private higher education sector in Bangladesh?

Answers of the above questions will lead the research to analyse this question. It is also one of the prime research questions; therefore all approaches used earlier will be used in achieving the answer to this question.

Questions: How is the present governance and regulatory system of private sector in Bangladesh set up?

This will be answered by the analysis of various documents used for the second question. In addition, key people from the private universities/institutions, UGC and NUB will be interviewed, as well as management and academic staff (qualitative approach).

Question: What will the future challenges be for the private HE sector's governance and regulatory control?

The answers to the above questions (in particular Question 11) will lead the research to analyse this question. In addition, interviews will be conducted with key people from private universities/institutions, UGC and NUB.

Question: What will be the strategy to face governance and regulation challenges for the government and private HE sector?

The answers provided will be the recommendations of the researcher, viewed from an international perspective. To reduce the administrative and participatory gap between HE government and private HE sector in Bangladesh, interview data of key people of private HE sector, UGC, NUB, MOE, BTEB, DH will be considered in order to make the recommendations.

Question: How can private HE sector play a constructive role for the national development of Bangladesh?

This is the concluding and main research question of the doctoral research. It will be answered by the critical analysis of the findings of all research questions answered earlier.

Appendix C

The table below provides a comparison between the public and private HE sectors in Bangladesh. The information used in this table is based on the data collected through various methods during my research fieldwork.

	Public HE sector	Private HE sector
01	Enjoys the advantages of heritage which leads them to play a more positive role when compared to their private counterpart	Attempting to be a significant competitor of the earlier public monopoly sector
02	Faces no real competition when collecting students	Facing very hard competition with the public HE sector to collect brilliant students
03	Working with brilliant students provides them the scope to forge a good reputation	Due to the merit constraints of the students, the sector is passing through a crucial time to gain a good reputation
04	Very imprudent in use of the institutional budget	Comparatively prudent when using the institutional budget
05	Imprudently in use of time, money and resources	Comparatively prudent in using time, money and resources
06	Students and academics are heavily engaged in politics	Students and academics are not engaged in politics
07	Academics don't give enough time to students	Academics give plenty of time to students
08	Halls of residence available	Halls of residence not available
09	Rich and poor students are studying	Only rich student groups are studying
10	Sufficient sports and cultural facilities	Insufficient sports and cultural facilities
11	Teacher mobility is not a major concern	Teacher mobility is of major concern
12	Students and academics who are involved politics take illegal facilities (i.e. admission, grades in examination,	Relatively influential individuals take illegal facilities (i.e. admission, grades in examination, promotion,

	promotion, employment, scholarship)	employment, scholarship)
13	Careless about issues concerning with students and guardians	Relatively careful about issues concerning students and guardians
14	Libraries are richer	Libraries are poorer
15	Experiencing heavy season-jam	No season-jam
16	Experiencing high volumes of campus unrest	Virtually no campus unrest
17	Highly qualified faculty members	Relatively low qualified faculty members
18	Depend on full time faculty	Depend on part time and hired faculty
19	Following back/out dated courses and curriculum	Following American-style courses and curriculum
20	Less informative	More informative

Appendix: D

Name of the University	Address	Offering subjects in undergraduate programme (Bachelor)	Offering subjects in graduate programme (Masters)	Offering subjects in doctoral and post doctoral programme	Offering subjects in certificates programme	Date of Affiliation
North South University	Kamal Ataturk Avenue, Banani, Dhaka	01. Architecture, 02. <u>Business Administration</u> , 03. <u>Computer science</u> , 04. <u>Computer Engineering</u> 05. <u>Electronics and Telecommunication Engineering</u> , 06. <u>Environmental Studies</u> , 07. <u>Economics</u> , 08. <u>English</u>	01. Business Administration, 02. Computer Science, 03. Development studies	N/A	N/A	05-11-1992
University of Science and Technology, Chittagong	Foyez Lake, Chittagong	XX	XX	XX	XX	09-11-1992
Independent University of Bangladesh	Baridhara, Dhaka	01. Business Administration 02. Computer Engineering, 03. Computer information system 04. Computer science,	01. Business Administration 02. Computer science, 03. Development Studies, 04. Telecommunication	N/A	N/A	15-03-93

			Engineering			
		05. Electrical & Electronic Engineering, 06. Electronic & telecommunication Engineering, 07. Environment Science & Management 08. Media and development communication	XX	XX	XX	16-03-93
Central Women's University	Ovoy Das Lane, Wari, Dhaka	XX				
Darul Ihsan University	Dhanmondi R/A, Dhaka	01. Business Administration 02. Computer Science and Engineering, 03. Da'wah & Islamic Studies, 04. Education	01. Business Administration, 02. Computer Science	N/A	N/A	19-08-03
International University of Business, Agriculture & Technology	Dhanmondi R/A, Dhaka	01. Agriculture, 02. Business Administration, 03. Civil Engineering, 04. Computer Science & Engineering, 05. Economics, 06. Electrical and Electronic Engineering.	01. Business administration	N/A	01. Computer, 02. Disaster management, 03. English and Bangla languages. 04. Human resource management, 05. Shipping marketing, 06. Women in development,	30-08-93

		07. Mechanical Engineering, 08. Nursing, 09. Tourism and hospitality management				
International University Cittagong	College Road, Cittagong	01. Arabic Language and literature, 02. Business Administration, 03. Computer Science and Engineering, 04. Da 'wah & Islamic Studies, 05. English language and Literature, 06. Hadith & Islamic Studies, 07. Law 08. Quranic Science & Islamic Studies,	01. Bank Management 02. Business Administration, 03. Da 'wah & Islamic Studies, 04. Quranic Science & Islamic Studies,			11-02-95
<u>Ahsanullah University of Science and Technology</u>	Tejturi Bazar, Dhaka	01. Architecture, 02. Business Administration, 03. Civil Engineering, 04. Computer Science & Engineering, 05. Electrical & Electronic Engineering, 06. Textile Technology,	01. Business Administration	N/A	N/A	02-05-95

American International University-Bangladesh	Kamal Ataturk Avenue, Banani, Dhaka	01. Business Administration, 02. Computer Engineering, 03. Computer Science, 04. Electrical & Electronic Engineering, 05. Information system	01. Business Administration	N/A	N/A	06-11-95
The University of Comilla	Housing Estate, Comilla	XX	XX	XX		04-12-95
Asian University of Bangladesh	Uttara, Dhaka	01. Business Administration, 02. Computer Science & Engineering, 03. Education 04. English	01. Business Administration	N/A	N/A	04-01-96
East-West University	Mohakhali, Dhaka	01. Business Administration, 02. Computer Science and Engineering, 03. Computer Science, 04. Economics, 05. Electrical & Electronic Engineering, 06. English, 07. Information & communication Engineering, 08. Pharmacy	01. Bank Management, 02. Business Administration, 03. Computer Application, 04. Computer Science & Engineering, 05. English, 06. Law	N/A	N/A	10-01-96

Queens University	Kamal Ataturk Avenue, Banani, Dhaka	01. Business Administration, 02. Computer Science & Engineering, 03. English, 05. Law	01. Business Administration	N/A	N/A	25-02-96
The University of Asia Pacific	Dhanmondi R/A, Dhaka	01. Architecture 02. Business Administration, 03. Civil & Environmental Engineering, 04. Computer Science & Engineering, 05 Electrical and Electronics Engineering, 06. Pharmacy	01. Business Administration 02. Computer application 03. Computer Science 04. Pharmaceutical Technology,	N/A	N/A	25-02-96
Gano Bishwabidyalaya	Noyherhat, Savar, Dhaka	XX	XX	XX	XX	10-04-96
The People's University of Bangladesh	Lalmatia, Dhaka	01. Business Administration 02. Community Agriculture and Environmental Science, 03. Computer Science 04. English 05. <u>Physiotherapy</u>	01. Business Administration 02. English	N/A	N/A	14-05-96
Dhaka International University	Dhanmondi, Dhaka	01. Agricultural Science 02. Business Administration, 03. Computer Science &	01. Business Administration 02. Law	N/A	N/A	21-03-2000

		Engineering, 04. English, 05. Law					
Brac University	Mohakhali, Dhaka	01. Architecture, 02. Business Administration 03. Computer Science 04. Economics 05. Electronics and communication Engineering 06. English 07. Law	01. Business Administration	N/A	Computer Application Courses	28-03-2001	
Manarat International University	Gulshan, Dhaka	08. Physic 01. Business Administration 02. Computer Science & Engineering, 03. English 04. Pharmacy	01. Business Administration	N/A	N/A	03-04-2001	
Bangladesh University	Mohammedpur, Dhaka	XX	XX	XX	XX	16-07-2001	
Leading University	Modibone, Sylhet	XX	XX	XX	XX	11-09-2001	
Stamford University, Bangladesh	Dhanmondi R/A, Dhaka	XX	XX	XX	XX	01-01-2002	
University of development Alternative	Dhanmondi R/A, Dhaka	XX	XX	XX	XX	02-01-2002	
Begum Gulchemonara Trust University	Chandash, Chittagong	XX	XX	XX	XX	21-01-2002	
Premier University	City Corporation,	01. Business Administration	01. Business Administration	N/A	N/A	21-01-2002	

	Chittagong	02. Computer Science 03. English 04. Law XX XX				
Sylhet International University	Garden Taltola, Sylhet	XX	XX	XX	XX	24-01-2002
South East University	Kamal Ataturk Avenue, Banani, Dhaka	XX	XX	XX	XX	24-01-2002
Daffodil International University	Dhanmondi R/A, Dhaka	01. Business Administration 02. Computer Science & Engineering 03. Computing and information system 04. Electronics and telecommunication Engineering 05. Geographical Information System & Management 06. Information system	01. Business Administration 02 English	N/A	N/A	18-02-2002
State University of Bangladesh	Mohammedpur, Dhaka	01. Architecture 02. Business Administration 03. Computer Science 04. English 05. Pharmacy XX	01. Business Administration 02. Construction Management 03. English,	N/A	Construction Management	30-05-2002
City university	Kamal Ataturk Avenue, Banani, Dhaka	XX	XX	XX	XX	21-08-2002
IBAJS University	Dhanmondi R/A,	01. Business Administration	01. Business Administration	N/A	N/A	06-08-2002

	Dhaka	02. Computer Science & Engineering				
America Bangladesh University	Kamal Ataturk Avenue, Banani, Dhaka	03. Tourism and Hotel management XX	XX	XX	XX	19-08-2002
Prime University	Kalyanpur, Dhaka	01. Business Administration	01. Business Administration	N/A	N/A	16-09-2002
Northern University- Bangladesh	Mohammedpur, Dhaka	02. Computer Science 01. Business Administration 02. Computer Science 03. English 04. Law 05. Pharmacy	01. Business Administration	N/A	N/A	17-10-2002
Southern University	Nashirabad Housing Society, Chittagong	01. Architecture 02. Business Administration 03. Computer Science & Engineering 04. Economics 05. English 06. Tourism & Hospitality Management	N/A	N/A	N/A	26-11-2002
Pundra University of Science and Technology	Gokul, Bagura	XX	XX	XX	XX	23-12-2002
Green University of Bangladesh	Dhanmondi, R/A, Dhaka	XX	XX	XX	XX	04-12-2002
World University of Bangladesh	Lalmitia, Dhaka	01. Architecture	01. Business Administration	N/A	N/A	09-02-2003

of Business and Technology (BUBT)							
Metropolitan University, Sylhet	Zindabaz, Sylhet	XX	XX	XX			05-04-2003
United International University	Dhanmondi, R/A. Dhaka	01. Business Administration 02. Computer Science & Engineering 03. EEE	01. Business Administration	N/A	N/A		15-04-2003
Victoria University of Bangladesh	Panthpath, Dhaka	XX	XX	XX			29-04-2003
Uttara University	Uttara, Dhaka	XX	XX	XX			21-04-2003
University of South Asia	Banani, Dhaka	XX	XX	XX			12-05-2003
Presidency University	Gulshan, Dhaka	XX	XX	XX			21-07-2003
University of Information Technology & Science	Gulshan, Dhaka	XX	XX	XX			07-08-2003
Prime Asia University		XX	XX	XX			
Royal University of Dhaka		XX	XX	XX			
University of Liberal Arts Bangladesh		01. Business Administration 02. Computer Science 03. English 04. Media Studies and Journalism	01. Business Administration 02. Law	N/A	N/A		
Atish Dipankar University		01. Business Administration 02. Computer Science & Engineering 03. Computer Science and Information 04. Economics	01. Business Administration 02. Law	N/A	N/A		

		05. English				
		06. Environmental Science				
		07. Law				
		08. Pharmacy				
		09. Social Welfare & Development				
		10. Sociology				

XX= Data was not obtained
 N/A= don't offer the programme stated

Appendix: E

A comparative table of student numbers and costs for public and private universities:

Public University

Name of the University	Year	Number of Students	Revenue Expenditures	Development Expenditures	Expenses for per student in a year
Dhaka University	2002	22683	853600000	151900000	44328
Rajshai University	2002	19683	551000000	201900000	38251
Bangladesh Agriculture University	2002	5596	459000000	69000000	94353
Bangladesh University of Engineering & Technology	2002	7501	298100000	104600000	53686
Chittagong University	2002	12887	395800000	176700000	44425
Jhangimagar University	2002	6650	273300000	181500000	68391
Islamic University	2002	7614	132700000	110900000	31994
Shahjalal Science & technology University	2002	3630	82000000	53300000	37273
Khulna University	2002	2662	71200000	28600000	37491
BBS Mujib medical University	2002	553	99900000	*	180651 ⁹⁷
BBS Mujibur Rahaman Agriculture University	2002	259	32500000	107100000	538996
H. M. Danesh Agriculture University	2002	700	28800000	13000000	59714

*=data unavailable

⁹⁷ Calculate without the amount of development expenditure

PabnaKhali Science & Technology University	2002	680	24200000	13000000	54706
Total: 13 Universities		91098	3302100000	1211500000	49547
Sher-E-Bangla Agriculture University	2002	1048	350000000	*	
CUET	2003	1309	*	36344000	
RUET	2003	1226	*	38345000	
KUET	2003	1354	*	40345000	
DUET	2003	1438	*	39562000	

Private University

Name of the University	Year	Number of Students	Total Expenditures	Expenses for per student in a year
North South University	2003	4281	204835000	47847.47
Central Women's University	2003	103	49690000	48242.72
Darul Ihsan University	2003	1974	60394000	30594.73
International Islamic University	2003	2961	150710000	50898.35
American International University	2003	2638	153041000	58014.03
Comilla University	2003	423	13998000	33092.20
Asian University of Bangladesh	2003	6335	109022000	17209.47
The University of Asia Pacific	2003	1334	78521000	58861.32
The Peoples University	2003	793	29031000	36609.08
Dhaka International University	2003	1122	24986000	22269.16

BRAC University	2003	1062	106083000	99889.83	
Leading University	2003	265	10178000	38407.55	
Sylhet International University	2003	169	6068000	35905.33	
University of Development Alternative	2003	1076	32158000	29886.62	
IBAIS University	2003	1235	30500000	24696.36	
Prime University	2003	172	7293000	42401.16	
Total: Sixteen Universities		25943	106650800	41109.66	

Proposed Private University Act, 2004

Bangladesh Gazette

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, , 2004

Bangladesh National Assembly

Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh

The Ministry of Education

Bangladesh National Assembly

Dhaka, , , 2004/

The following Act accepted by the National Assembly has been ratified by the President on ... and is hereby published for the general public:

Act No., 2004

The implemented Act in order to establish Private Universities

As, it is necessary to establish Universities at private sector in order to meet the growing demand for and to extend higher education in the country, and to create skilled manpower through creating the opportunities for higher education for the general public,

And as, some people, group of people and organisations are interested to establish Universities at private sector,

And as, the existing law is not sufficient for the establishment and proper management of private sector universities,

Thus, the private universities act 1992 and the private universities (amended) act 1998 are hereby cancelled and this act is enacted.

1. Short title: This act will be named as the private universities act 2004.

2. Definitions: If there is nothing against the subject and the issue,

- (1) "Private University" means the private university established under this Act and any private university that offers or conducts the degrees and diplomas at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels under any foreign university or with their cooperation or as their sister concern or as their branch institution as per the conditions imposed by the government for this purpose and the articles of this Act.
- (2) "Faculty/School" means the educational faculty/school of any private university;
- (3) "Academic Council" means the academic council of any private university;
- (4) "Authority" means any authority mentioned in and formed under this Act;
- (5) "Board of Trustees" means the board of trustees mentioned in the article 15 (1) a;
- (6) "Syndicate" means the syndicate mentioned in the article 15 (1) b;

- (7) "Founder" means the individuals, group of individuals, social welfare organisations, or any other organisations who have taken the initiatives to establish the private university;
- (8) "Group of individuals" means a group consisting of two or more individuals to establish any private university;
- (9) "Certificate" means the letter of consent issued by the government under Article 6 in order to establish any private university;
- (10) "University Grants Commission" means University Grants Commission of Bangladesh formed under University Grants Commission of Bangladesh Order, 1973 (P.O. No. 10 of 1973);
- (11) "Campus" means the campus as described in the application for establishment of any proposed private university;
- (12) "Outer campus" means the campus in addition to the campus granted within the main Certificate;

3. Private University:

- (1) It may be possible to establish one or more private universities under this Act;
- (2) A private university would be considered as a not for profit institution for higher education;
- (3) As per the rules of this Act, any private university may acquire, protect and exchange *temporary or permanent property in its name and may also sue and conduct a case for or against its name*;
- (4) No private university be established with the same or similar name of an already legally established private university;

4. The place of a private university:

- (1) Any private university may be situated at any place in Bangladesh with the permission of the government and according to the rules of the Act;
- (2) But, the entrepreneurs will have to transfer no more than 5 (five) acre undivided land to the proposed university along with the registration in the name of the university in order to get the government's approval to establish the private university. A plan for building necessary infrastructure (e.g., sufficient number of class rooms, laboratory, library, auditorium, seminar room, office, separate common rooms for boys and girls) within the registered land needs to be submitted to the Ministry of Education. The permanent infrastructure should be built within 3 (three) years as per the approved plan. All activities of the university can be continued temporarily in a rented house of no more than 25000 (twenty five thousand) sq. ft. until the permanent infrastructure is built. Without prior permission from the government, the land of the university cannot be made liable or transferred;
- (3) The university should have No more than Tk. 5 (Five) Crore for Dhaka and Chittagong Metropolitan Areas and no more than Tk. 3 (Three) Crore for any other areas as its own reserve fund. This amount of money may never be withdrawn from the fund;
- (4) Under this Act, if any certified private university intends to establish any outer campus in addition to the campus mentioned in the Certificate they need to apply along with the submission of extra Tk. 2 (Two) crore in the reserve fund described in the sub-article (3). Government may approve this application according to the advice of the University Grants Commission. Without prior approval of the government, the establishment and running of any outer campus, or any such activities would be considered completely illegal. All income-

expenses of the outer campus need to be separately mentioned in the annual budget of the main university and it would be considered the income-expenses of the university in every aspect;

- (5) In the case of outer campus, all the necessary infrastructural facilities and university-owned land should be there.

5. The university is open to race and religion: Any private university would be open to any qualified students irrespective of their race, religion, color, tribe and gender.

6. Certificate of establishing a private university:

- (1) Under this Act, no private university can be established or run, or no undergraduate or postgraduate degrees and diploma courses can be offered or no certificate of any degree and diploma can be provided under any foreign universities or as their affiliates or branch without acquiring the necessary certificate from the Ministry of Education;
- (2) Any founder, individual or group of individuals, or any other organisations interested to establish a private university need to apply to the government using a prescribed form in order to acquire a certificate as per the sub-article (1);
- (3) Under the sub-article (2), upon receiving the application the government can ask for any other necessary documents regarding this case from the applicant and if the government becomes satisfied upon considering this case that the applicant has fulfilled all the conditions under the article 7 for establishing a private university, only then a certificate in favor of the applicant would be issued in order to establish a private university under the sub-article (1). As per the condition mentioned in the article 4 (2) of this Act, a temporary certificate would be given initially upon considering the submitted plan to build necessary infrastructure in the registered land of the university. Within a fixed time period a permanent certificate would be issued after the permanent infrastructure is built;
- (4) If the government is assured that the applicant has failed to fulfill the conditions under article 7 for establishing a private university, then the government can cancel the submitted application under the sub-article (2) with an order.
But there is a condition that the government can reconsider any application if applied for reconsideration. The decision by the government would be considered final.

7. The conditions of acquiring the Certificate: Under the article 6, among other matters, any private university needs to fulfill the conditions mentioned below in order to get the certificate:

- (1) A Board of Trustees needs to be formed under this Act;
- (2) The conditions mentioned in the article 4 of this Act need to be abided by;
- (3) Sufficient facilities need to be provided in the Library and Laboratory;
- (4) Its plan for education curriculum needs to be approved by the University Grants Commission;
- (5) It needs to have at least 3 (Three) Faculties with 4 (Four) departments per Faculty in the initial period;
- (6) For each Faculty, as per the approved rules of the University Grants Commission, each Department needs to have fixed number of full-time qualified teachers. Part-time teachers need to show the approval letter of their main

- employer institution. The number of part-time teachers should not exceed a quarter of full-time teachers in number in each department;
- (7) If any foreign university wants to open their branch in Bangladesh, then all the articles of this Act need to be applied and followed;
 - (8) Any founder intending to establish a new private university has to pay the University Grants Commission the Fees fixed by the government along with the relevant expenses required to visit the university;
 - (9) There has to be a balanced curriculum and syllabus approved by the University Grants Commission;
 - (10) 10 (Ten) percent of the seats should be reserved for the admission of the poor students in any academic year and these students would have the opportunity to study free and in each semester or in each academic year the list of the students studying without tuition should be submitted to the University Grants Commission. 7.5 (Seven and half) percent of the University's whole budget should be spent for the poor and meritorious students;
 - (11) No private university can launch or offer any MBBS/BDS course under this Act;
 - (12) Each private university needs to spend 2.5 (Two and half) percent of their revenue towards research.

8. Examination System:

- (1) In order to ensure neutrality, accuracy and transparency in evaluating the examination scripts, the University Grants Commission can reexamine the examination scripts by the subject experts upon collecting some examination scripts of each course on random basis. If a huge discrepancy is observed in the reevaluation, the government can take any actions against the university including canceling their certificate; -
- (2) In evaluating the examinations in the private universities, there needs to be unique grading system effective based on year of study and courses.

9. Officers in the Private University: Any private university would have following full-time officers:

- (1) Vice-Chancellor;
- (2) Pro-Vice Chancellor;
- (3) Treasurer;
- (4) Dean;
- (5) Registrar;
- (6) Examination Controller;
- (7) Departmental Head;
- (8) Director (Finance and Accounting);
- (9) Any other officers announced as officers of private university by the statutes under the article 22.

10. Chancellor:

- (1) The President of the Peoples Republic of Bangladesh would be the Chancellor of all private universities by the merit of his position and he or his representative would preside over the Graduation Ceremony of awarding the Certificates of Academic and Honorary Degrees;
- (2) Every proposal of awarding the Honorary Degrees has to have the consent of The Chancellor;
- (3) Graduation Ceremony of awarding Academic Degrees will be held each year with the approval of the Chancellor or at an interval set by the order of the Chancellor;

- (4) The Ministry of Education would act as the Secretariat of the Chancellor.

11. Vice-Chancellor:

- (1) The Vice-Chancellor of a private university would be appointed for 4 (four) – year period from the panel of 3 (three) individuals proposed by the Board of Trustees as per the conditions set by the Chancellor and he would be the Executive Chief and the Academic Head of that university. He would execute the decisions taken by the Board of Trustees and the Syndicate;
- (2) The Vice-Chancellor would be an eminent Educationist and he requires to have at least 20 (twenty) years of experience in teaching and administration in his professional career at the University level;
- (3) If, for any reason, the Vice-Chancellor is incapable of carrying out the responsibility of his position, and if there is no Pro-Vice-Chancellor in the same university, the Chancellor may give the responsibility to the Treasurer / a Senior Dean of the university on a temporary basis;
- (4) The Vice-Chancellor would be a member of the Board of Trustees and the Chairperson of the Syndicate, Academic Council and Teacher Appointment Committee by the merit of his position;
- (5) The Chancellor can discharge the Vice-Chancellor if it is necessary for any reason.

12. Pro-Vice-Chancellor:

- (1) The Pro-Vice-Chancellor of a private university would be appointed by the Chancellor for 4 (four) – year period from the panel of 3 (three) individuals proposed by the Board of Trustees as per the conditions set by the Chancellor;
- (2) The Pro-Vice-Chancellor would be an eminent Educationist and he requires to have at least 18 (eighteen) years of experience in teaching and administration in his professional career at the University level;
- (3) The Pro-Vice-Chancellor will carry out the responsibilities set by the Statutes drawn under the Article 22 or given by the Vice-Chancellor;
- (4) The Chancellor can discharge the Pro-Vice-Chancellor if it is necessary for any reason.

13. Treasurer:

The Treasurer of a private university would be appointed for 4 (four) – year period from the panel of 3 (three) individuals proposed by the Board of Trustees as per the conditions set by the Chancellor;

It is essential for the Treasurer to have higher degrees on financial management and he requires to have at least 15 (fifteen) years of experience in teaching / financial management;

The Treasurer will be liable for budget preparation, financial management and discipline, and Accounting of the private university. He would be a member of the Finance Committee of the university;

The Chancellor can discharge the Treasurer with the recommendation of the Government, the Board of Trustees and the University Grants Commission, if it is necessary for any reason;

The Treasurer will keep the accounts of income and expenditures of the university.

14. The appointment of the Registrar, the Controller of Examinations and other officials:

- (1) There would be an appointment committee consisting 7 (seven) members. This appointment committee would be formed with 3 (three) members of the Board of Trustees, 2 (two) members of the Syndicate (those who are not the members of the Board of Trustees), a specialist nominated by the Vice-Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor himself. The Vice-Chancellor would chair this committee. The Registrar, the Controller of Examinations and other officials of a private university will be appointed with the recommendations of this committee as per the conditions set by the Syndicate;
- (2) The Dean of any Faculty or the Head of any Department would be appointed for 3 (three) year period with the recommendations of the Vice-Chancellor as per the conditions set by the Syndicate;

15. The private university authority:

- (1) Any private university would consist of the authorities (administrative bodies) listed below:

- a. Board of Trustees: Board of Trustees would have at least 9 (nine) and no more than 25 (twenty-five) members – where 2 (two) government officials (not below the rank of Additional Secretary) nominated by the Government as members. A member nominated by the Board of Trustees would act as the Chairperson of the Board;
- b. Syndicate: The number of members of the Syndicate would be as follows:
 1. Vice-Chancellor;
 2. Pro-Vice-Chancellor (if there is any);
 3. Treasurer;
 4. A Dean nominated by the Vice-Chancellor;
 5. A Departmental Head nominated by the Vice-Chancellor;
 6. 3 (three) members nominated by the Board of Trustees;
 7. 2 (two) eminent educationists nominated by the Board of Trustees (who are not the members of the Board of Trustees);
 8. 1 (one) representative of the Government who is not below the rank of a Joint Secretary; and
 9. 1 (one) representative nominated by the University Grants Commission (who will be a Professor of the university while not employed in the University Grants Commission);

The duration of the membership of the Syndicate would be for 3 (three) years. The Vice-Chancellor would act as the Chairperson of the Syndicate.

- c. Academic Council: The Academic Council would form with the following members:
 1. Vice-Chancellor – who will be its Chairperson as well;
 2. Pro-Vice-Chancellor (if there is any);
 3. Treasurer;
 4. All Deans;
 5. All Departmental Heads;
 6. Registrar;
 7. Controller of Examinations;
 8. All Full-time Professors of the University;
 9. 2 (two) external specialists nominated by the Syndicate;
 10. 1 (one) member nominated by the Board of Trustees.

The duration of the membership of the Academic Council would be for 3 (three) years.

- d. Faculty / School: The respective Dean would be the Head of the Faculty / School. The departmental Head would be the members of the Faculty / School. The Dean would deliver his responsibilities in education planning and co-ordination.
- e. Curriculum Committee: There would be one curriculum committee in each department. All departmental teachers and 2 (two) external experts would be the committee.
- f. Finance Committee: There would be a Finance Committee consisting 7 (seven) members. The members of this committee would be the Treasurer, 2 members from the Board of Trustees, 1 (one) Departmental Head nominated by the Vice-Chancellor, 2 (two) members nominated by the Syndicate. A member nominated by the Board of Trustees would be the Chairperson of this committee. The Director (Finance and Accounts) or a Senior Executive from the same department would be the Member-Secretary of the Finance Committee. The duration of this committee would be for 3 (three) years.
- g. Appointments Committee: There would be an appointments committee consisting at least 5 (five) members for appointing teachers in each department. This committee would be formed with an expert on the subject nominated by the Vice-Chancellor, respective Dean, 1 (one) member nominated by the Board of Trustees, respective Head of the department, and 1 (one) expert nominated by the University Grants Commission. The Vice-Chancellor would be the Chairperson of the Appointments Committee.

(2) The Board of Trustees can form any other 'Committee/Board/Council' in addition to the administrative bodies mentioned in the sub-article (1), if necessary to deliver the tasks of the university perfectly and efficiently, with the recommendations of the Syndicate.

16. The power and the duty of the Board of Trustees:

- (1) To collect, maintain and manage the University property and funds;
- (2) To ensure the planning and implementation of the development and extension programs of the university;
- (3) To ensure the implementation and maintenance of the annual budget of the university;
- (4) To receive the Will, donation and transferred property on behalf of the university;
- (5) To place the proposal for the appointments of Vice-Chancellor, Pro-Vice-Chancellor and Treasurer to the Chancellor;

17. The power and the duty of the Syndicate:

- (1) To be the Executive Body of the university and to look after and conduct the academic affairs, administrative activities and general management of the university;
- (2) To set the size of the general Seal of the university, and to set the system of preserving and using it;
- (3) To consider and approve the annual budget prepared by the Finance Committee;
- (4) To set the criteria for employment of the university teachers, officers and other employees, their duties, terms and condition of their jobs and their salary scale, if there is no other rule exists in this Act;

- (5) To administer the examinations, and approve its results with the recommendations of the Academic Council;
- (6) To preserve all certificates and the security symbols of certificates issued by the university;
- (7) To ensure the discipline of the university at all levels and approve the recommendations/proposals of the discipline committee regarding conducts subversive to the university discipline;
- (8) To consider and approve the recommendations of the Academic Council;
- (9) To take actions to preserve properly the admission registrar, examination results registrar, accounts and all other important records;
- (10) To make the statutes as per the Article 22 of this Act.

18. If any dispute arises between the Syndicate and the Board of Trustees on any matter, it will be placed before the Chancellor to resolve and the decision by the Chancellor would be considered final.

19. The power and the duty of the Academic Council:

Academic Council will be considered as the Chief authority on education affairs;

It would be liable to provide university education, develop and maintain the standards of education and examinations and it would have the controlling and care taking authority over all these affairs;

It would exert other powers and deliver the responsibilities given by the Statutes and advice the Syndicate on all education related affairs;

Academic Council may make the principles to set the right standards for course contents and curriculums, teaching, research and examinations as per this Act, the rule of the University Grants Commission Order and Statutes, and the authority given to the Vice-Chancellor and the Syndicate.

20. Academic activities, miscellaneous:

All approved private universities would require to send the proposal for opening any new faculty or department to the University Grants Commission along with the description of the number of teachers (full-time and part-time) on the subject, their qualifications, experience and the relevant physical infrastructure. Without the approval of the University Grants Commission any new faculty or department may not be launched. Any unapproved department / faculty or any other academic activities would be considered void;

Private universities may only offer education in traditional system, not in distance learning method;

No academic activities can be considered which may harm the security, solidarity and sovereignty of the State;

Any private university needs to get the approval of the University Grants Commission in order to sign any contract related with any academic activities with foreign universities and that needs to be informed to the government;

21. Termination / postponement of the Certificate: The government and the University Grants Commission may investigate in the cases when any complain is raised regarding any irregularity in the overall administration or academic or financial management of any private university. If the complain is proven true in the investigation, the government may terminate / postpone the Certificate of the relevant

university. If this happens during the middle of the study life of the students, the university authority would be bound to provide them compensation. The compensation would be provided from the reserve fund of the university. The University Grants Commission would help the students who sustained a loss in getting the opportunity to get enrolled in the other private universities in the same class (year).

22. Statutes: As per the rules set by the government, they Syndicate will set all the statutes consisting the rules related with the private university curriculum, degree-awarding, administration, financial and other activities. The compiled Statutes need to be ratified by the University Grants Commission.

23. Registration: All students need to be given a registration number upon their admission in the private university and this registration number would continue to remain until the course is completed. This registration number needs to be mentioned in the Certificates and mark sheets provided by the university authority.

24. Student Fee and the teachers' salary structure: The student fee for the students in the private university should be reasonably relevant to the socio-economic structure of the country. Similarly, the teachers should have the salary structure. The student fee and the salary structure need to be informed to the government and the University Grants Commission.

25. The Certificate and Diploma, etc. in the private university: All degree and diploma certificates will need to be signed by the Examination Controller / Registrar and the Vice-Chancellor and it would need the Seal of the university.

26. Fund:

There needs to be a general fund in addition to the reserve fund for a private university. All tuition fees from the students, and income from all other sources need to be saved in the general fund;

The general fund would be deposited in any scheduled bank in the name of the university and money can be withdrawn from the fund as per the procedures set by the Act. 2 (Two) officials of the university nominated by the Board of Trustees would handle the account and keep it up-to-date;

The source of the income invested by the university needs to be informed to the government;

The accounts on the income and expenditure of the last year should be informed to the government each year in September;

No individual or organisation can raise any fund abroad on behalf of the university and nor they can send the university fund abroad without the prior approval of the Chancellor;

No university fund can be invested for any activities other than the development of the university.

27. Accounts and Audit: The accounts of income and expenditure of a private university need to be preserved in the form prescribed by the University Grants Commission and this account needs to be audited in each financial year by a Chartered Accountants Firm who is employed with the approval of the government and the audit report needs to be sent to the government and the University Grants Commission.

28. Inspection and investigation, etc.:

Government or the University Grants Commission can conduct inspection / investigation on any issues of a private university at any time by any individual authorized for this purpose;

As per the sub-article (1), the government or the University Grants Commission can give any inspected private university the order to take necessary actions within a specified time period, which the private university would be obliged to carry out;

Any private university would remain obliged to provide any report, statement or information as and when demanded by the government and the University Grants Commission.

29. Punishment:

If the founder of any private university or any individual related with the university violate the sub-article (3) of article 4, sub-article (1) of article 6 and article 20 of this Act, (s)he or they would be considered to commit crime and would be sentenced for at least 3 (three) years in jail or a fine of Tk. 10 (Ten) Lac or both for this crime;

Any case petitioned to the court would not be accepted under this Act without the written complaint of the government or the official authorized by the government.

30. Accreditation Council: In order to improve and maintain the quality of the education of the private universities, the government would form an autonomous and neutral Accreditation Council with the recommendation of the University Grants Commission. This Council would give report to the government on different course curriculum relevant to higher education of different departments, the standard of teachers and education, student admission procedure, examination procedure, grading system, library and laboratory facilities and any relevant issues of any higher education providing private universities after consulting with them.

The formation, rules of procedures and the jurisdiction of the Accreditation Council would be set by passing another separate Act.

31. All the private universities need to implement all the rules of this Act within 3 (three) years from the day this Act would be enacted.

National University of Bangladesh

Gazipur – Bangladesh

Conditions of Affiliation of BBA Course

1. To launch BBA course, the college must be situated or built upon the educational institutions own undivided and unclaimed land. The college should have registered deed and other necessary papers of the land. Usually the amount of land will be as follows-
 - (a) 1.00 acre in the metropolitan area
 - (b) 1.25 acres in the municipal or industrial area
 - (c) 2.00 acres in other areas
2. Besides the required rooms to execute administrative activities, there should have eight classrooms sized 400 square ft. In addition to these, there should have different room for teachers, common room for the students, room of seminar, computer lab and general lab.
3. There should have sufficient furniture in proportion to the teachers.
 - (a) Qualified BBA degree holding principal, vice principal and other teachers are to be appointed according to the rules and regulations in apportioning teachers of non-government degree colleges working with the National University of Bangladesh
 - (b) According to the regulation, for BBA course, two teachers are to be appointed in each subject and out of the total teachers at least five teachers must be MBA degree holder from Bangladesh or foreign university with the result of 2nd class or equivalent degree.
 - (c) In the college there must have 8 (eight) full-time teachers.
5. There should have pay scale for the teachers and other staff according to governmental rules and regulations. Payment and other facilities of concerned employees should be paid regularly.
6. In each of the funds of the college – reserved and general, there should have at least one lakh taka (1,00,000/-) as deposit.
7. The economical condition as well as the overall governance should be satisfactory.
8. The college should have a rich library and a building room. According to syllabus, the number of text book and reference book should be at least 3,000 (three thousand).
9. Arrangement of sports field for the students is to be ensured.
10. For the female students, there should have the residential facility.
11. Living accommodation of the principal, Vice principal, teachers and other staff should be ensured in the college campus or its nearby.
12. That the college should have a governing body and the college will be governed by the governing body.
13. There will have no second campus or branch of any college.
14. If any college enrolls students before getting affiliation, then application of affiliation of that college will be regretted & the deposited fees for affiliation will be forfeited.

College Inspector
National University of Bangladesh
Gazipur, Bangladesh

National University of Bangladesh

Gazipur – Bangladesh

Conditions of Affiliation of Computer Science (Hon's) Course

1. To launch Computer Science (Hon's) course, the college must be situated or built upon the educational institutions own undivided and unclaimed land. The college should have registered deed and other necessary papers of the land. Usually the amount of land will be as follows-
 - (a) 1.00 acre in the metropolitan area
 - (b) 1.25 acres in the municipal or industrial area
 - (c) 2.00 acres in other areas
2. Besides the required rooms to execute administrative activities there should have 8 classrooms sized 700 square ft each. In addition to these, there should have different room for teachers, common room for the students, room of seminar, computer lab and general lab.
3. There should have sufficient furniture in proportion to the teachers.
4. (A) Following the rules & regulations and other conditions stated in appointing teachers of a non-government degree level college affiliated with the National University, candidates having qualification of Masters or equivalent alone with Bachelor (Hon) in Computer Science and having work experience will be appointed in the position of Principal & Vice Principal and other teachers
(B) For the appointment of lecturer in computer Science, the candidate trained in computer science must have a post-graduate degree in applied physics and electronics, Physics, Mathematics, or statistics.
(C) At least two teachers for each subject offering in the programme of Bachelor (Hon) in Computer Science will be appointed and seven full-time teachers out of total teachers must have a Msc degree alone with Bachelor (Hon) in Computer Science, securing at least 2nd class in both, awarded either from Universities in Bangladesh or the universities in overseas.
(D) At least eight full-time teachers is a must.
5. There should have pay scale for the teachers and other staff according to the governmental rules and regulations. Payment and other facilities of concerned employees should be paid regularly.
6. Collection of high tuitions and other charges from the students is prohibited.
7. In each of the funds of the college – reserved and general, there should have at least TK: 1,00,000/- (one lakh) as deposit.
8. The economical condition and the overall governance should be satisfactory.
8. The college should have rich library and a building room. According to syllabus, the number of text book and reference book should be at least 3,000 (three thousand).
10. There must have a computer lab and an electronics lab with the necessary equipments for the practical class of computer course.
11. Living accommodation for the principal, Vice principal, teachers and other staff should be ensured in the college campus or its nearby.

- 12.** That the college must have a governing body and the college will be governed by the governing body.
- 13.** There will have no second campus / branch of any college.
- 14.** If any college enrolls students before affiliation, the application for affiliation of that college will be regretted & the deposited fees for affiliation will be forfeited.

College Inspector
National University of Bangladesh
Gazipur, Bangladesh

Translated by-

Md. Shariful Islam
Course Coordinator
Bangladesh Institution of Linguistic Technology (BILTech)
Panthapath, Dhaka.

Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh

Ministry of Health & Family Welfare

Health Education Section

No: HFFWM/MEM/NGMC-01/2004/567

Date: 31-07-2004

Subject: Ordinance of Founding Medical College at Private Level

1. To set up Medical College at private or non-governmental level, the entrepreneur or the entrepreneurs will have to apply in the specific application form to the Directorate of Health. With the application a non-refundable 30,000/- Tk. (Thirty thousand) is to be deposited as application fee.
2. No entrepreneur can commence the educational programme before having permission from the ministry of Health & Family Welfare and affiliation from the university.
3. The non-government or private medical college is to be founded under a registered Trust/Foundation/Limited Company which is formed according to the prevalent Trust Law.
4. To name the college as a particular individual's name, there must have a donation of Tk. 1,00,00,000/- (One crore) in the college fund by that individual or his/her behave.
5. No non-government medical college is to be set up under such name that, under that name there has already been a non-government or government medical college or any other educational institution or the proposed name bears a similarity with any existing educational institution.
6. Along with the application for permission of the non-government Dental College, the rules & regulations of the service and the organogram of the college & hospital are to be submitted. The permission for proposed dental college and rules and regulations for jobs and organogram will be approved by the government.
7. Permission to set up non-government medical college is to be taken in two steps – the primary permission and permission of launching the educational course. The two permissions are to be taken differently. The primary approval will be given through the specific committee.
8. On the basis of the service rules & regulations & the organogram of the non-government medical college, the teachers / officers / staff and other required manpower are to be recruited before the admission of the students. Details of the appointed teachers / officers / staff are to be submitted to the directorate of health and to the ministry of Health & Family Welfare.
9. The number and qualifications of the different subject based teachers / officers / staff should be according to the rules and regulations of B.M & D.C (Bangladesh Medical & Dental College) & the highest age of the teachers should be according to the age limit of the concerned university. For the affiliation of the college, along with the application, list of the subject wise teachers and their qualifications are to be submitted. The principal of the college should be a professor in any subject related to medical science according to the rules and regulation of B.M & D.C and P.S.C (Public Service Commission)..
10. Examining the application and necessary papers of the proposed project, Directorate of Health will consist an inspection committee with the following officers and make a

physical inspection and submit their opinion to the concerned ministry within 6 (six) months of receiving the application.

(a)	Director (Medical Education and Health and Manpower Development, Directorate of Health)	Chairman
(b)	Dean (Faculty of Medicine or concerned university's or his representative)	Member
(c)	A professor / associate professor from a basic science department	
(d)	A professor / associate professor from a clinical science department	Member
(e)	Senior Assistant Secretary (Medical Education and Health and Manpower Development, Ministry of Health & Family Welfare)	Member
(f)	Assistant Director (Medical Education, Directorate of Health)	Member Secretary

In addition to, committee can co-opt member if necessary

11. Non-government medical college and hospital should not be set up in any rented house.
12. To set up a medical college and hospital of 50 seated students, within the metropolitan area, there should have 2.5 (Two and a half) acres land, or for the college building 1,00,000 square feet (one lac) floor space, for hospital 1,00,000 square feet (one lac) floor space and out of the metropolitan area, the college should have at least 5.00 (five) acres constructable land of its own by purchase or as a gift. Later on, if the seats are increased land premises and other infrastructures are to be increased according to the ratio.
13. A fixed deposit of one crore TK1,00,00,000/- (one crore) should be kept in any registered scheduled bank. There will be no consideration for drawing and disbursing of the fixed deposited amount. But the interest on the deposited amount can be withdrawn at the end of the year in order to transfer to the college fund. A certificate issued from the bank stating that without the permission of the ministry of Health and Family Affair, the said amount will not be withdrawn and utilized needs to be submitted to the ministry. No loan against of the fixed deposit amount is to be taken.
14. The ratio of subject wise teachers and student should be 1:10 according to the rules and regulations of B.M & D.C & 5% seats of the college students should be allocated or kept reserved for the poor and talented students. From them fees may be taken as per the government medical college rules.
15. Non-government medical college will properly maintain their own account.
16. Account of the college of every financial year should be examined by a qualified registered audit firm. This audit should be completed within the six months of the expired financial year, and the ministry should be informed, & the college authority should pay the fees of auditor.
17. According to the number of the students of the non-government medical college, a hospital must be set up and the number of the beds of the hospital should be 1:5 that is, in a 50 students' medical college should have a hospital of at least 250 beds.
18. Before starting the activities of the medical college, the activities of a 250-bedded hospital should be started. No application for the permission of the college will be considered if the hospital is not in running condition. 5% beds of the hospital should be reserved for the poor without any rent.

19. There should have sufficient educational equipments, library, accommodation facility of the students and full-time presence of teachers and concerned staff. Part-time teachers may be recruited, if required, but not more than one fifth of the teachers in any department.
20. The college should be in a separate building from the hospital and there should have proper facilities in every department accordingly. But both the buildings should be at the same premises.
21. The students of private medical college won't be allowed to use govt. medical college & hospital for practical training, except forensic medicine and community medicine. But facilities of the govt. medical college & hospitals may be given to the private medical students by fulfilling of the terms & conditions of the college authority.
22. The admission of the private medical students must be on the basis of merit and the rules and regulations for the admission of the Govt. College must be followed in the private medical college
23. Permission from Ministry of Health & Family Welfare is to be taken before enrolling students and starting educational activities for the first time. Later on with the expansion or development of infrastructure enrolment capacity may be increased but in such case permission from the Ministry of Health and Family Affair is to be taken providing recommendation from the university. Without prior permission if seats of the students are increased, then punishable steps will be taken as well as affiliation of the concerned college may be cancelled as punishment.
24. Private medical colleges must follow the curriculum & syllabus of the concerned university / Bangladesh medical & dental council (B.M & D.C).
25. Before starting the activities at the private medical college, permission from concerned university is to be taken and within two months from starting of the educational activities, application for registration should be forwarded to B.M & D.C.
26. Foreign Aid or Donors' financial & technical help may be taken to set up private medical College, but in such case prior permission from the concerned authority must be taken.
27. In the governing body of the private medical college, there should be a representative from the Ministry/Directorate of Health. The constitution of the governing body of private medical college should be according to the affiliating public university's rules & regulations & according to the direction of the ministry.
28. Up-to the first 5 years Health Ministry / Health Directorate will inspect the non-government medical colleges at least once a year and then once after every two years to ensure whether their (non-govt. medical college) activities are being properly conducted or not.
29. The approved seats of the private medical colleges may fill up with 25% foreign students. But both the local and foreign students' number must not increase the total allotted seat numbers. Foreign students won't be admitted before the successful passing out of the first batch.
30. No such private university, in the name of faculty of medicine or medicine faculty or using any such name can admit students into MBBS course or any other medical science related courses. Until the advent of any new rules and regulations, laws for establishment of non-govt. medical colleges by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare will be applicable.

31. Ministry of Health & Family Welfare reserves the full authority for providing affiliation to the private medical colleges. Medical colleges, which have been given affiliation under some terms and conditions, must fulfill those attributed conditions and after the granting of present rules & regulations those colleges will be conducted by this rules and regulations within two years.
32. Authority of the non-govt. medical colleges, along with the application, must submit a written statement on a non-judicial prevalent priced stamp from the Health & Family Welfare Ministry stating that they must abide by the aforesaid rules and regulations.
33. To keep pace with the demand of time, government reserves the rights of changing, expanding and correcting this rules and regulations.
34. If the above mentioned rules and regulations are not properly followed & exercised by the non-government medical colleges, then government reserves the rights to close private/non-govt. medical colleges with 6 (six) month's notice and may take punishable steps against the entrepreneurs according to prevalent laws. In this respect, decision of the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare will be considered as effective.

Signature
(Mohammad Abubakar Siddique)
Senior Assistant Secretary
Ph: 8619730
Date-31-07-2004

No: HFWM/MEM/NGMC-01/2004/567-8

For kind consideration and taking necessary steps duplicate copy is sent to:

1. Director General, Health Directorate, Mohakhali, Dhaka.
2. Joint Secretary (Integration, Health and Family Welfare Ministry)
3. Dean, Faculty of Medicine, Dhaka University/Chittagong University/Rajshahi University/Shahjalal University of Science & Technology, Sylhet.
4. Director (Medical Education), Directorate of Health, Mohakhali, Dhaka
5. Director, Center for Medical Education, Mohakhali, Dhaka
6. Deputy Secretary (MEM), Ministry of Health and Family Welfare
7. Secretary General, BMA, BMA Building, Topkhana Road, Dhaka
8. Registrar, BM & DC, 203 Sayed Nazrul Islam Avenue, Dhaka

Signature
(Mohammad Abubakar Siddique)
Senior Assistant Secretary
Ph: 8619730
Date-31-07-2004

No: HFWM/MEM/NGMC-01/2004/567-8 (4)

For Kind information duplicate copy is sent to

1. P.S to Minister, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare
2. P.S to State Minister, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare
3. P.S to Secretary, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare
4. Personal Officer to the Additional Secretary, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare

Signature
(Mohammad Abubakar Siddique)
Senior Assistant Secretary

Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh

Ministry of Health & Family Welfare

Health Education Section

No: HFFWM/MEM/NGMC-01/2004-568

Date: 31-07-2004

Subject: Ordinance of Founding Dental College at Private Level

1. To set up Dental College at private or non-governmental level, the entrepreneur or the entrepreneurs will have to apply in the specific application form to the Directorate of Health. With the application a non-refundable 30,000/- Tk. (Thirty thousand) is to be deposited as application fee.
2. No entrepreneur can commence the activities of a dental college before having the permission from the ministry of Health & Family Welfare and affiliation from the university.
3. The non-government or private Dental College is to be established under a registered Trust/Foundation/Limited Company which is formed according to the prevalent Trust Law.
4. To name the college as a particular individual's name, there must have a donation of Tk. 1,00,00,000/- (One crore) in the proposed dental college fund by that individual or his/her behave.
5. No non-government Dental College is to be established under such name that, under that name there has already been a non-government or government Dental College or any other educational institution or the proposed name bears a similarity with any existing educational institution.
6. Along with the application for the permission of the non-government Dental College, the rules & regulations of the service and the organogram of the college & hospital are to be submitted. The permission for proposed dental college and rules and regulations for jobs and organogram will be approved by the government.
7. Permission to set up non-government Dental College is to be taken in two steps – the primary permission and permission of launching the educational course. The two permissions are to be taken differently. The primary approval will be given through the specific committee.
8. On the basis of the service rules & regulations & the organogram of the non-government Dental College, the teachers / officers / staff and other required manpower are to be recruited before the admission of the students. Details of the appointed teachers / officers / staff are to be submitted to the directorate of health and to the ministry of Health & family welfare.
9. The number and qualifications of the different subject based teachers / officers / staff should be according to the rules and regulations of B.M & D.C (Bangladesh Medical & Dental College) & the highest age of the teachers should be according to the age limit of the concerned university. A list stating the qualifications of the teachers appointed for different subject needs to be submitted with application for the approval of the college. The principal of the dental college should be a professor in any subject related

to dental studies according to the rules and regulation of B.M & D.C and P.S.C (Public Service Commission).

10. Examining the application and necessary papers of the proposed project, the Directorate of Health will consist an inspection committee with the following officers and make a physical inspection and submit their opinion to the concerned ministry within 6 (six) months of receiving the application.

(a)	Director (Medical Education and Health and Manpower Development, Directorate of Health)	Chairman
(b)	Dean (Faculty of Medicine or concerned university's or his/her representative)	Member
(C)	A professor / associate professor from a dental science department	Member
(d)	A professor / associate professor from a clinical science department	Member
(e)	Senior Assistant Secretary (Medical Education and Health and Manpower Development, Ministry of Health & Family Welfare)	Member
(f)	Assistant Director (Medical Education, Directorate of Health)	Member Secretary

In addition to, committee can co-opt member if necessary

11. Non-governmental dental college and hospital should not be set up in any rented property.
12. To set up a Dental College and hospital of 50 seated students, within the metropolitan area, there should have 1.5 (One and a half) acres land, or for the college and hospital building 1,00,000 square feet (one lac) floor space, and out of the metropolitan area, the college should have at least 3.00 (three) acres of constructible land of its own by purchase or as a gift. Later on if the seats are increased, land premises and other infrastructures are to be increased according to the ratio.
13. A fixed deposit of one crore taka (1,00,00,000/-) should be kept in any registered scheduled bank. There will be no consideration for drawing and disbursing of the fixed deposited amount. But the interests of the deposited amount can be withdrawn at the end of the year in order to transfer to the college fund. A certificate issued from the bank stating that without the permission of the ministry of Health and Family Affair, the said amount will not be withdrawn and utilized needs to be submitted to the ministry. No loan against of the fixed deposit amount is to be taken.
14. The ratio of subject wise teachers and student should be 1:10 according to the rules and regulations of B.M & D.C & 5% seats of the college students should be allocated or kept reserved for the poor and talented students. From them fees may be taken as per the government Dental College rules.
15. Non-government Dental College will properly maintain their own account.
16. Account of the college of every financial year should be examined by a qualified registered audit firm. This audit should be completed within the six months of the expired financial year, and the ministry should be informed, & the fees for auditor should be paid by the college authority.
17. According to the number of the students of the non-government Dental College, a hospital is to be set up and the capacity will be 50 beds with modern facilities. Since density is mainly based on outdoor thus hospital most set up an outdoor unit. The

number of the chairs of the hospital should be 2:1 that is in a 50 students' Dental College, there should have a hospital of at least 25 units and chairs.

18. Before starting the activities of the Dental College, activities of a 50 bedded hospital should be started. No application of affiliating the college will be considered if the hospital is not in running condition. 5% seats of the hospital should be reserved for the poor without any rent.
19. There should have sufficient educational equipment, library, accommodation facility for the students and full-time presence of teachers and concerned staff. Part-time teachers may be recruited, if required, but not more than one fifth of the teachers in any department.
20. The college should be in a separate building from the hospital and there should have proper facilities in every department accordingly. But both the buildings should be at the same premises.
21. The private Dental College students' won't be allowed to use govt. Dental College & hospital for practical training, except forensic medicine and community medicine. But facilities of the govt. Dental College & hospitals may be given to the private medical students by fulfilling the terms & conditions of the college authority.
22. The admission of the private dental students must be on the basis of merit and the rules and regulations for the admission in the Govt. College must be followed in the private dental college.
23. Permission from Ministry of Health & Family Welfare is to be taken before enrolling students and starting educational activities for the first phase. Later on with the expansion or development of infrastructure, enrolment capacity may be increased but in such case permission from the Ministry of Health and Family Affair is to be taken providing recommendation from the university. Without prior permission if seats of the students are increased, then punishable steps will be taken as well as the affiliation of the concerned college may be cancelled as punishment.
24. Private Dental Colleges should follow the curriculum & syllabus of the concerned university and B.M & D.C.
25. Before starting the activities at the private Dental College, permission from concerned university is to be taken and within two months from the starting of the educational activities, application for registration should be forwarded to B.M & D.C.
26. Foreign Aid or Donors' financial & technical help to set up private Dental College may be taken but in such case prior permission from the concerned authority must be taken.
27. In the governing body of the private Dental College, there should be a representative from the Ministry and Health Directorate. The constitution of the private Dental College should be according to the affiliating public university's rules & regulations & according to the direction of the ministry.
28. The approved seats of the private Dental Colleges may be filled up with 25% foreign students. But both the local and foreign students' number must not increase the total allotted seat numbers. Foreign students won't be admitted before the successful passing out of the first batch.

29. Up-to the first 5 years Ministry of health / Directorate of health will inspect the non-government Dental Colleges at least once a year and then once after every two years to ensure whether their (non-govt. Dental College) activities are being properly conducted or not.
30. No such private universities, in the name of faculty of medicine or medicine faculty or using any such name can enroll students into BDS course or any other medical science related courses. Until the advent of any new rules and regulations, laws for establishment of non-govt. Dental Colleges by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare will be applicable.
31. Ministry of Health & Family Welfare reserves the full authority for providing affiliation to the private Dental Colleges. The Dental Colleges, which have been given affiliation under some terms and conditions, must fulfill those attributed conditions and after the granting of present rules & regulations those colleges will be conducted by this rules and regulations within two years.
32. Authority of the non-govt. Dental Colleges, along with the application, must submit a written statement on a non-judicial prevalent priced stamp from the Health & Family Welfare Ministry stating that they must abide by the aforesaid rules and regulations.
33. To keep pace with the demand of time, government reserves the rights of changing, expanding and correcting this rules and regulations.
34. If the above mentioned rules and regulations are not properly followed & exercised by the non-government Dental Colleges, then government reserves the rights to close private/non-govt. Dental Colleges with 6 (six) month's notice and may take punishable steps against the entrepreneurs according to prevalent laws. In this respect, decision made by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare is final.

Signature
(**Mohammad Abubakar Siddique**)
Senior Assistant Secretary
Ph: 8619730
Date-31-07-2004

No: HFWM/MEM/NGMC-01/2004-568/9

For kind consideration and taking necessary steps duplicate copy is sent to:

1. Director General, Health Directorate, Mohakhali, Dhaka.
2. Joint Secretary (Integration, Health and Family Welfare Ministry)
3. Dean, Faculty of Medicine, Dhaka University/Chittagong University/Rajshahi University/Shahjalal University of Science & Technology, Sylhet.
4. Dean & Chairman, Dental Faculty, BSMMU, Shabag, Dhaka
4. Director (Medical Education), Directorate of Health, Mohakhali, Dhaka
5. Director, Center for Medical Education, Mohkhali, Dhaka
6. Deputy Secretary (MEM), Ministry of Health and Family Welfare
7. Secretary General, BMA, BMA Building, Topkhana Road, Dhaka
8. Registrar, BM & DC, 203 Sayed Nazrul Islam Avenue, Dhaka

Signature
(**Mohammad Abubakar Siddique**)
Senior Assistant Secretary

Ph: 8619730

No: HFWM/MEM/NGMC-01/2004-568/9(4)

For Kind information duplicate copy is sent to

1. P.S to Minister, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare
2. P.S to State Minister, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare
3. P.S to Secretary, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare
4. Personal Officer to the Additional Secretary, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare

Signature

(Mohammad Abubakar Siddique)
Senior Assistant Secretary

Translated by-

Md. Shariful Islam

Course Coordinator

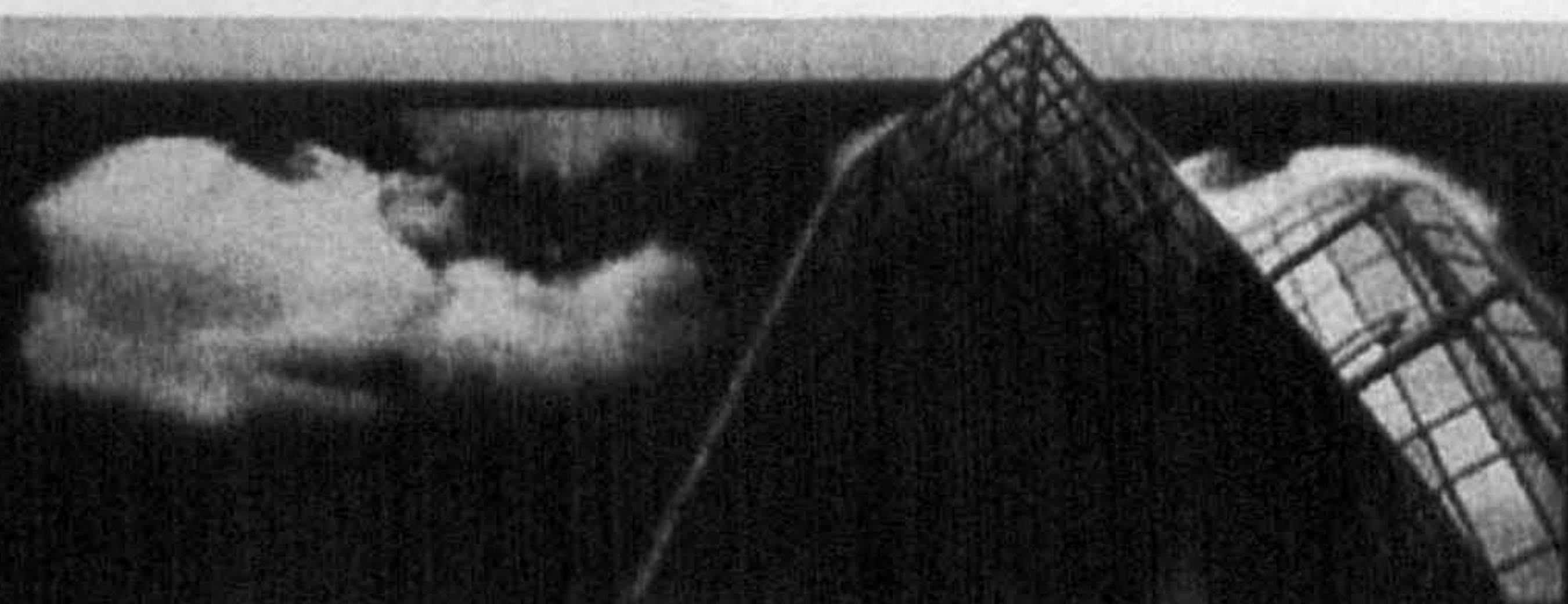
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Panthapath, Dhaka.

Administration of private university



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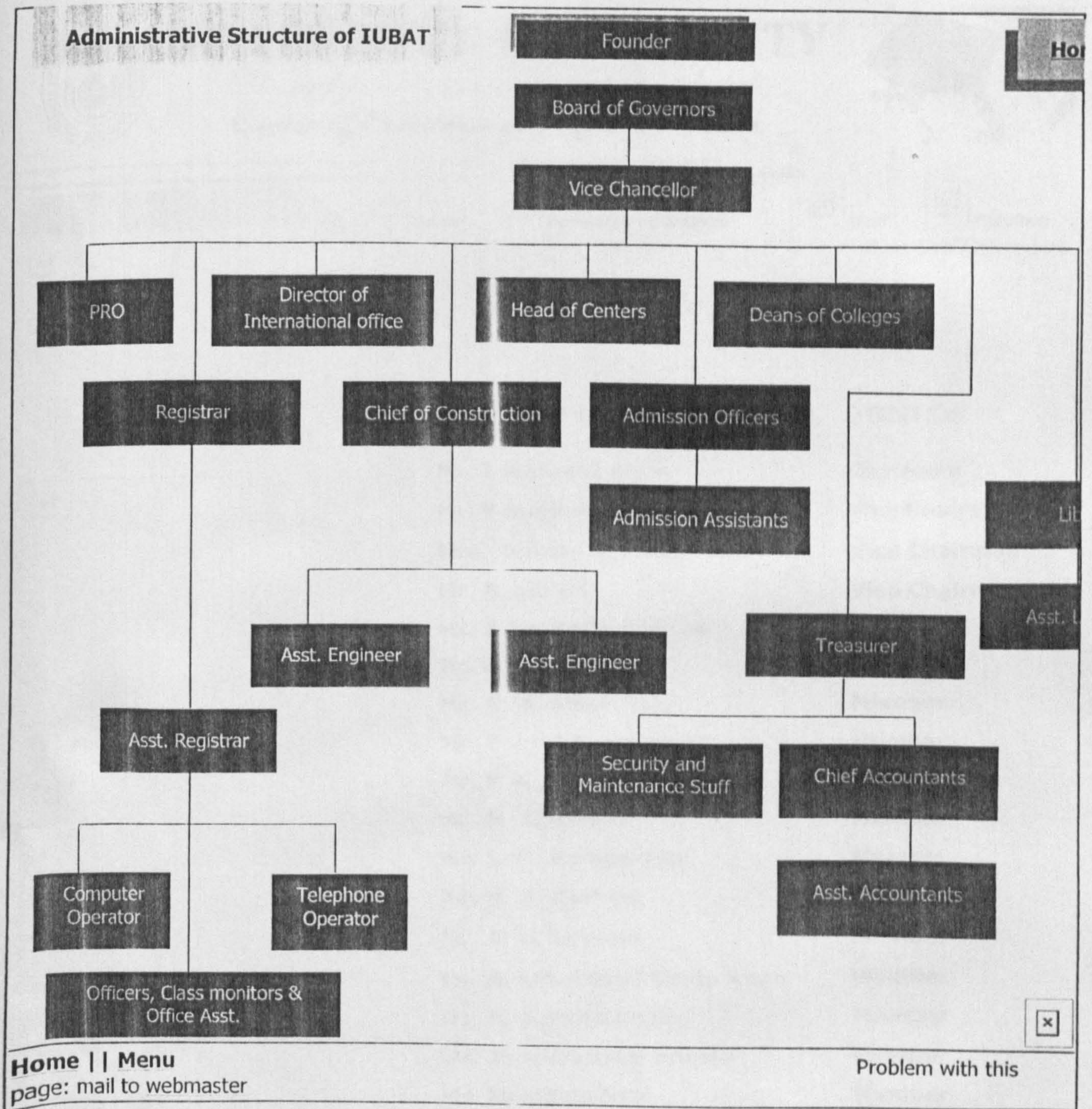
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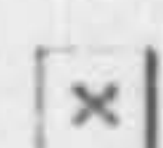
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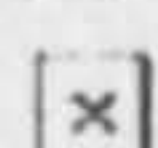


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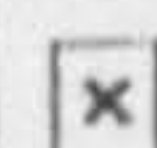
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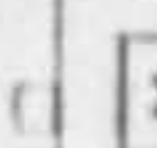
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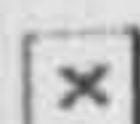


Staff

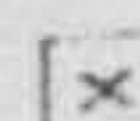


Faculties

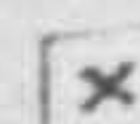
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